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This combination curriculum guide and handbook contains suggestions on methods, techniques, and content in the teaching of modern and classical languages. An introduction defining foreign language study and its various phases is followed by a chapter on FLES, chapters on the initial, the intermediate, and the advanced phases of study, and one on classical languages. Individual chapters on (1) pattern drills, (2) evaluation, scores, and grades, and (3) utilization of audiovisual and mechanical aids are also included. A glossary and list of suggested books conclude the guide. (AF)

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Grades K-12

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Curriculum Bulletin Series

No. V (revised)

Edited by Kenneth A. Lester,
Foreign Language Consultant
Connecticut State Department of Education
Hartford
March 1968

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Connecticut State Board of Education
1968

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Foreword

It was just ten years ago that the Connecticut State Board of Education published the first curriculum bulletin on the teaching of foreign languages in grades 7 through 12. The bulletin was written and prepared for publication by the State Advisory Committee on Foreign Language Instruction, comprising staff members of colleges and secondary schools in the state, since at that time there was no consultant in the teaching of foreign languages on the staff of the State Department of Education.

The bulletin was very well received. In addition to Connecticut schools and colleges, many colleges and school systems throughout the nation requested copies. The year 1958 was a turning point in the teaching of foreign language, largely because of the stimulation provided by the National Defense Education Act of that year. Questions were arising concerning the teaching of foreign languages. The bulletin dealt with many of those questions, such as *why* foreign languages should be studied, *which* of them should be studied in high school, and *who* should be encouraged to study them.

The authors of the bulletin addressed their joint attention to the consideration of "ideal" programs and to the problem of developing *continuity* in programs of language study from grade 7 through 12. Throughout, the bulletin stressed the content and method of foreign language instruction—in other words, *what* should be taught and *how*.

The past ten years have been good ones for the advancement and improvement of foreign language teaching. The current State Advisory Committee on Foreign Language Instruction and Mr. Kenneth A. Lester, the state consultant in the area, have worked together on this revised bulletin that reflects this recent progress. The Connecticut State Board of Education is pleased, indeed, to make it available to the schools of the state.

William J. Sanders

Commissioner of Education

Preface

This bulletin is written as a curriculum guide for local planners. It has been composed primarily to be read as a total treatise and secondarily to be used as a handbook. One emphasis or the other may be found in various sections.

This guide is intended to serve as a general source of ideas and as a means for identifying promising trends to help the local professional staff in planning, implementing and maintaining outstanding programs of foreign language instruction.

Grateful acknowledgment is due the Advisory Committee on Foreign Language Instruction, 1967-1968. The members of this committee contributed the principal portion of the content of this revision of the pacesetting 1958 Curriculum Bulletin Number V.

Advisory Committee on Foreign Language Instruction for 1967-1968

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We also appreciate the cooperation of the students from E. O. Smith High School of the University of Connecticut whose voices are heard on the accompanying plastic record.

Kenneth A. Lester, *Editor*
Foreign Language Consultant
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Contents

I Introduction 1

II Foreign Language in Elementary School 9

III The Initial Phase 16

IV The Intermediate Phase 27

V The Advanced Phase 30

VI Classical Languages 31

VII Pattern Drills 39

VIII Evaluation, Scores and Grades 47

IX Utilization of Audio-Visual and Mechanical Aids 52

Appendix A Glossary of Terms 56

Appendix B Suggestions for the Teacher's Bookshelf 60

I

Introduction

In our day, both the skills and the broadened cultural horizon which can result from the study of foreign languages, contemporary and classical, should be made available to *all* American youth, who should be encouraged to study languages whether or not they plan to go to college. The values of language learning are cumulative. While even two years of study can provide an understanding of and competence in the use of many basic speech patterns in a modern language or may result in an understanding of much of the basic structure of Latin, it takes several more years of study to acquire effective command of skills and broad insights into another language and culture.

During recent decades, a clearer understanding has been gained about the nature of language, the nature of learning, and the relation of language to individual and community life. Considerable progress has been made in the techniques of language teaching. No teacher can afford to ignore these recent findings, even though they may cause sweeping changes in the practices to which he is accustomed. The nature and extent of some of these changes will be made clearer by the following comments offered in the light of our new knowledge.

Contemporary and classical languages. Contemporary and classical languages have some broad, cultural objectives in common. In any foreign language program the student should seek:

- To acquire an understanding and appreciation of another people's way of life, literature and civilization;
- To develop an awareness of the relation between his own language and civilization and those of another country; and
- To achieve a deeper understanding of himself, his nation and its history.

With regard to linguistic objectives. however, contemporary and classical languages diverge. For the contemporary languages they are:

- To understand the language without reference to English, especially as it is spoken by native speakers in situations similar to the learner's own experience;
- To speak the language in a manner acceptable to native speakers, also without reference to English (The development of near-native fluency is a much longer process);
- To read, without conscious translation into English, newspapers, magazines, and literary texts; and
- To write, without reference to English, the language in the authentic patterns of the foreign country.

For the classical languages, the student's linguistic objectives, arranged in order of importance, are:

- To read classical authors in the original with comprehension and appreciation. (Writing, listening, and oral use are primarily tools to this end);
- To express the thought of the original classical text in correspondingly good English. (This goes far beyond literal transla-

tion. An acceptable final version should never retain structures that are foreign to English); and

- To acquire a knowledge of the word stems and patterns which are the bases of a large part of the English language.

Who should study foreign languages? Children produce many thousands of spoken words every day, so that all the sound patterns of the native tongue become matters of habit. While still very young, we learn how words change, go together, and affect each other as they fit into patterns or sentences. We learn this not by analysis but simply by imitation, analogy, and some cognitive language-sense peculiar to human beings. No matter how complicated the morphology and the syntax of a language may seem to an outsider, every five-year-old speaker of that language knows them thoroughly. The ability of a pupil to learn a foreign language in school, when such study is approached initially through practice in listening comprehension and speaking, might be limited only by his interest and the effort which the school system finds it practical to put into the language program.

Therefore, all children can benefit from foreign language study, particularly if it is begun in the elementary grades. All children should be given an opportunity to continue this study for as long as their interest permits, whether or not they are planning to go to college. Specifically, pupils who are progressing at a slower rate than others should not be prohibited from continuing their study of a foreign language throughout a long sequence.

Linguistically talented students should be given every encouragement to pursue the study of a foreign language and culture for several years, even to the extent of following content courses in the language. These highly successful language students might be encouraged to add the study of a second foreign language to their program. (Figure 1)

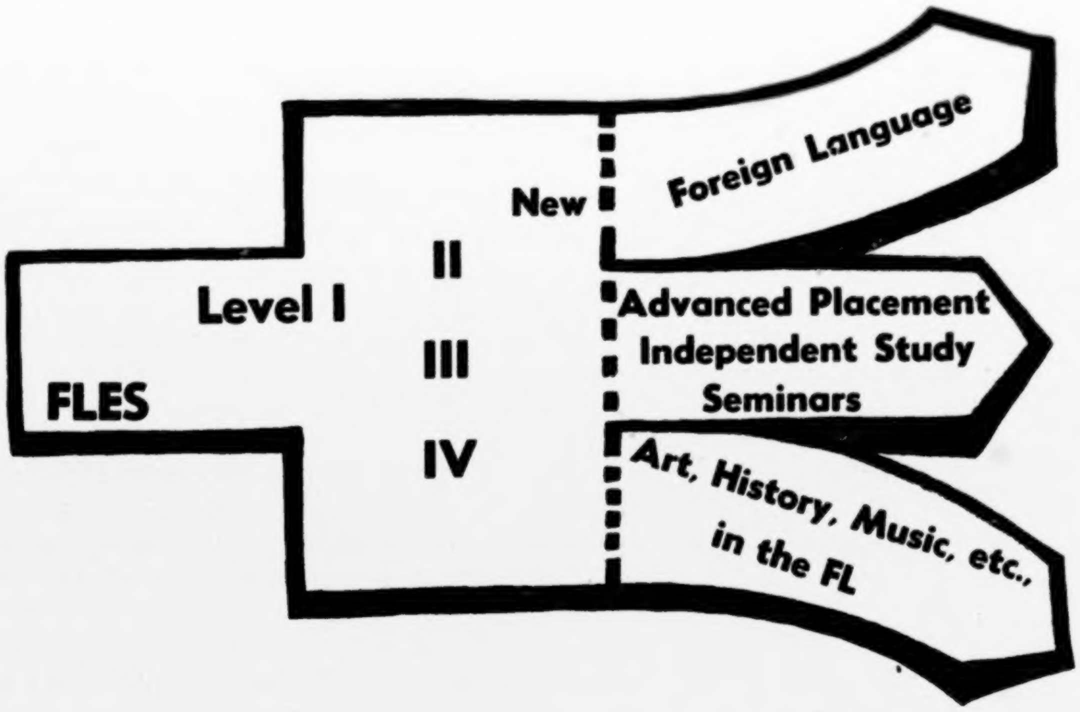

Figure 1

On the other end of the scale, the slower language learner should be given an equal opportunity to pursue his interest in foreign language study. If the primary goal of this student is limited to work with the spoken language, the teacher may have to make a considerable effort to adapt procedures and materials to these special circumstances, since little has been done by publishers and program planners to accommodate these pupils.

Which languages should be taught? Connecticut public schools offer programs, in order of frequency, in French, Spanish, Latin, German, Italian, Russian, Chinese, Japanese, and Hebrew. The study of any of these languages is of value because, in addition to providing a new avenue of communication, it can develop in the student a "language sense" which will facilitate the learning of other languages.

Every school system should seriously consider the possibility of making available at the beginning of the student's language experience all languages offered at the upper secondary levels. Too stringent limitations at the beginning will endanger the continuance of a rich, varied program of several languages. Implications for the whole program and for the future of the language student must be considered when decisions are made about offerings at earlier levels.

Coordination in language study. One of the greatest needs in foreign language study today is a cohesive pattern of instruction. In school systems where it is not feasible to begin foreign language study in lower grades, it may well be possible to begin in grade 7 and to develop a program which will continue through the senior year of high school. It is imperative that a student pursue his study through the senior year if he plans to continue with the language in post-secondary studies.

The problem of coordination exists in two dimensions. The first dimension, articulation, involves sequential progression from one level of language study to the next, both within a single school and from one school to another. The second dimension relates to correlation between different sections within the same level of study.

For the best coordination, a basic philosophy of language teaching should be adopted by an entire school system. The determination of the basic philosophy may be the prerogative of the school administration or the board of education. Objectives and goals and best methods for their attainment should be stated and agreed upon by the foreign language staff. It would seem most suitable that a staff member or prospective staff member agree to follow the basic philosophy as a condition of employment, although this should in no way prohibit him from working with his colleagues towards what he considers to be a more appropriate philosophy or better means for attaining the goals valued by the department and students.

Since, to obtain the necessary cohesion, constant orientation and reorientation are needed for the staff throughout the system at all levels of instruction, a curriculum guide common to the school system should be developed and followed. This would provide a teacher at any given level of instruction an idea of what materials pupils had studied in previous classes, an understanding of the approaches used and a description of the competence expected of the students at the next level of instruction. It will help also to achieve a well-coordinated effort if common materials are adopted throughout the language program to meet the goals and objectives in the basic course (Phases One and Two, described later). These materials should be common to both dimensions of coordination, vertical and horizontal.

In addition, to assure implementation of the basic philosophy, coordination can best be effected under the direction of a single specialist chosen for that purpose. Enough time must be made available to the person with this prime responsibility to visit classrooms and conduct critiques with the teachers, to lead the in-service education program for the foreign language staff and to provide for continuous curriculum development.

Phases. In view of the confusion resulting from the use of the terms years, levels, and courses, it seems appropriate to define terms used in this bulletin to describe foreign language programs. A total language program might be imagined in three "Phases." The Initial Phase, or Phase One, will emphasize the development of all four skills of listening comprehension, speaking, reading and writing but with heavy stress on listening and speaking. In all of the skills, it is the syntax, morphology, vocabulary and style of the spoken language which is studied. The description of the Initial Phase is valid, obviously, whether it is begun in kindergarten or in grade nine.

Phase Two of language study will again involve all four skills but with the emphasis more on reading and writing. The content and style of writing are now added to the previous treatment of spoken language only. All students of language should have the opportunity to complete this phase of study in their school careers.

Phase Three of the study of a foreign language will entail total use of the language in such programs as advanced placement, study of civilization and culture, comparative government, and so on, with content limited only by the imagination and training of the local staff, the resourcefulness of the administration and the interest of the students.

This general description also applies to Latin. Phase One will include basic language in the study of structure and vocabulary. In Phase Two the concern would be with the application of this basis to the development of reading comprehension, while the advanced placement or honors programs would be classified under Phase Three. The major goal throughout the Latin program will be the development of the reading skill.

Levels. The term "Level," in the context of this bulletin, is not synonymous with one year of study. For convenience in description as far as modern languages are concerned, Phase One has been divided into two Levels, Phase Two into Levels Three and Four, and Phase Three into Levels Five and Six. (See Figure 2)

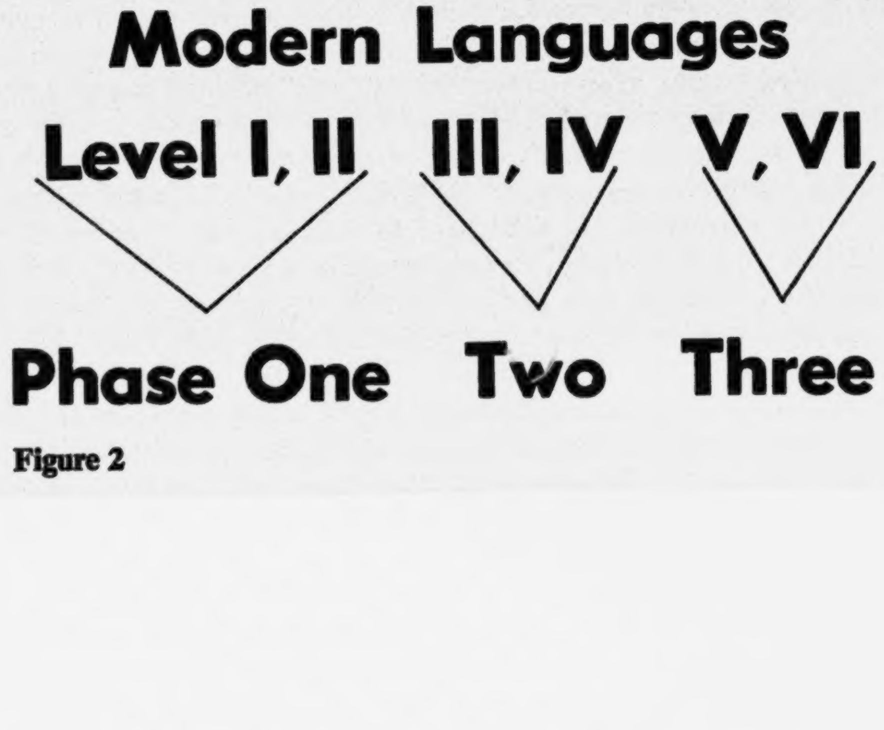

Figure 2

In Latin, Level Two concludes Phase One; Level Three comprises Phase Two; and Levels Four, Five and Six are synonymous with Phase Three. (See Figure 3)

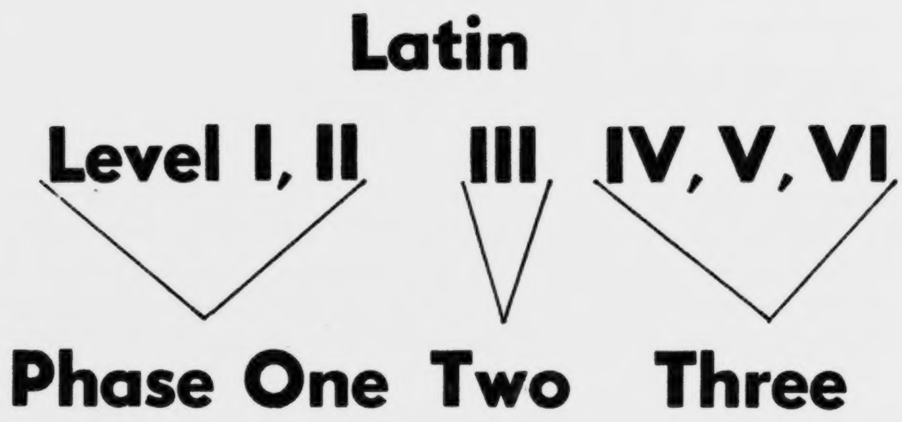

Figure 3

A student's rate of progress and achievement in a language course may be measured in two ways, either by the time spent or competence gained. The first is probably best expressed in terms of contact hours, the second by success in tests that measure all the skills. Since the pupil normally spends a school year in a given grade, the terms "First Year," "Second Year," and so on, long were used in the curriculum to indicate not only blocks of material to be studied but also to denote what the pupil had learned.

In the 1950's, the inadequacy of these terms began to be seriously felt, in view of the increasing variation in the number of contact hours in the different grades and the growing number of different beginning points for language courses. The search for more precise terms resulted in separating each of the three major divisions of language work, elementary, intermediate and advanced, into two parts, calling each of these parts a "Level," and recognizing that under the most desirable conditions the work of a Level corresponded reasonably well with what can be done in an upper school grade in a single year. The word "Level" was so used in the 1958 Curriculum Bulletin No. V of the Connecticut State Department of Education. This usage has gained broad national acceptance in the preparation of both materials and tests. It was fundamental in structuring the MLA Cooperative Tests for Secondary Schools, and the two degrees of difficulty reflected in these tests are placed at the end of Level II (Phase One) and Level IV (Phase Two), respectively.

Since a Level, so understood, requires in the elementary and the junior high school considerably more than a school year, there is need for an additional term to mark off the student's progress regarding both materials studied and competence gained in the separate parts of a given Level. To designate this smaller unit of work and competence, the term "Step" is proposed. A Step will be most meaningful within the context of a situation. It will serve to describe the completion of a hurdle, an arrival at a breather or plateau, or a stage at which a change in emphasis begins to take place. It will clearly not be very meaningful to compare Steps between school systems, except as they may relate to the larger unit of Level. A Step will need to be defined by a local school system, taking into consideration the length of the language sequence, the materials used, the type of pupil studying the language, the number of class periods per week, and the proficiency expected of the students completing the foreign language sequence. In some cases a Step may correspond to a single year's work. In others, the year's work may be divided into a series of Steps.

The reassessment of language study in the past several years has resulted in placing emphasis on skill development as the first responsibility of language teaching, even though foreign language study should include much more than this in its entirety. During the first few years of language study, when the emphasis is essentially on skills and mastery of the structure of the foreign language, the approaches used must be consistent. When this is not the case, the student is severely handicapped. The local school systems have the primary responsibility of teaching the basic structural patterns of the target language. The schools must plan a language program long enough to achieve at least this goal. It is universally acknowledged that it is too late for most students to initiate foreign language study at post-secondary level, although the study of additional foreign languages might be started at that stage.

Because foreign language learning should be available to all students, it is highly desirable that multi-track offerings (groupings within Levels according to ability and achievement) be considered. Figure 4, below, illustrates two programs in a given foreign language in which some students achieve the goals set for Phases One, Two and Three. Another track is available to students who expect to achieve only the goals of Phases One and Two. In the school system convinced of the value of foreign language for all, a third achievement track might be considered where the student expects to attain only the goals related to the spoken language (Phase One).

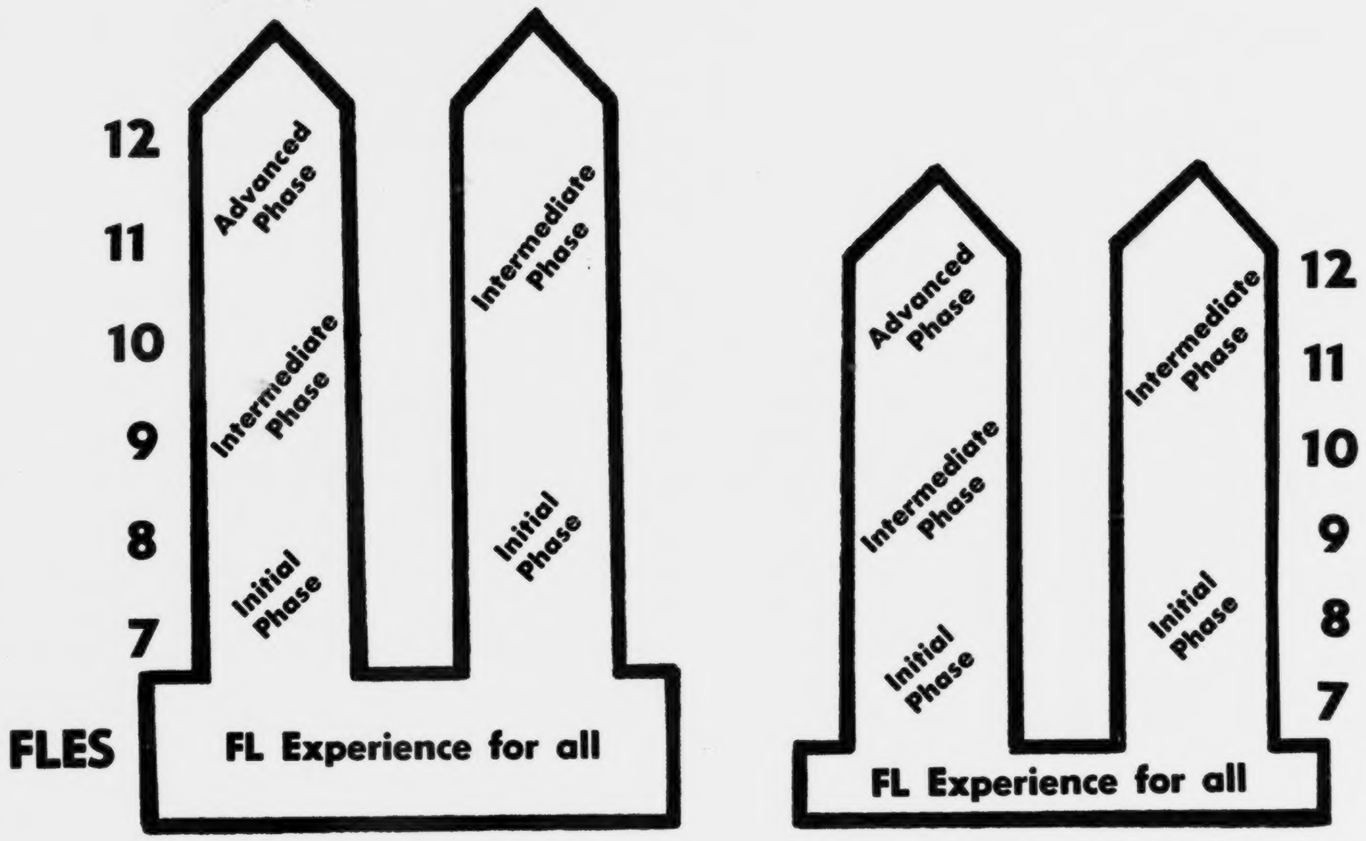

Figure 4

The multi-track program should be organized so as to allow flexibility, that is, the ability to move from track to track depending upon the student's achievement. (Figure 5)

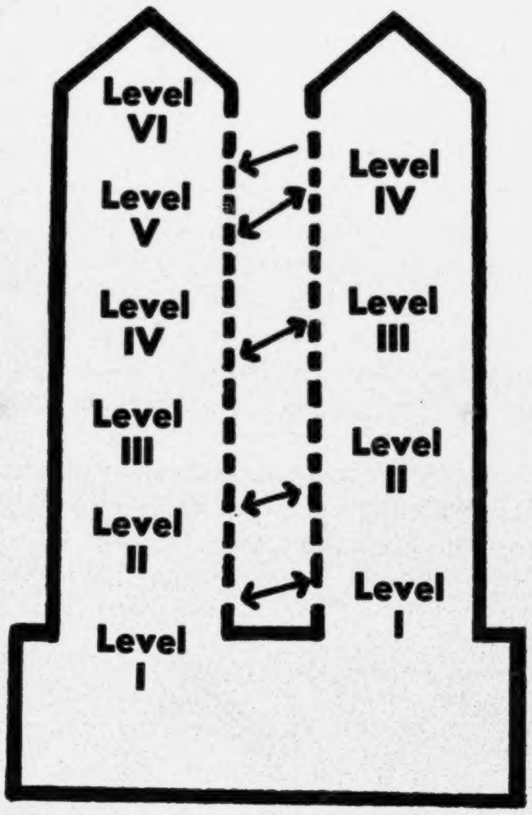

Figure 5

The language skills. A period of ear and tongue training without the aid of the printed word is the essential foundation for effective language learning. Only by memorizing and using meaningfully many examples of the syntax patterns of the new language before they are analyzed can the student make grammar become an efficient tool, which is its principal function in language learning. From the start, the learner should hear only authentic speech. At first he should speak only what he has heard, read only what he has heard and spoken, write only what he has heard, spoken and read. No student should be expected to analyze anything but what has been heard, spoken and understood. Most students should analyze only what has been heard, spoken, read, written and fully understood.

Even though reading is the primary linguistic goal of the study of Latin, there is need of the limited development of other skills in order to achieve a comprehension of Latin as a language and to reinforce the primary skill of reading.

The role of English. A simple and effective procedure is to conduct most of every class entirely in the (modern) foreign language. The teacher may have to use a word or two of English to meet an emergency, but the students should not use English.

In the case of Latin, at least a part of each class should be conducted in the language. This portion may be discussion of a reading selection for clarification or comprehension, as well as oral drills in the structure of the language.

The role of the book. Books should be closed and out of reach for a part of the time in every class and for most of the time in most classes. This is to give the ear and the tongue the training they must have in modern languages but are prevented from receiving if the eye is allowed access to written symbols at all times. The problem is similar to learning the touch system on the typewriter. To learn to type with the eyes glued on the keys is not impossible, but the process is much easier if the eye is not allowed to interfere with the sense that must be developed in the fingers.

For Latin, the same caution is advisable but for different reasons. The student of Latin must be put on his own at some time, without recourse to the book for consultation on rules, forms and vocabulary. The most appropriate time for this is during a portion of each day in class, whether the class is conducted in Latin or in English.

Language and writing. Language is first of all something you say. All languages were spoken long before they were written, and some have never been written down. Every individual speaks his native tongue for years before he writes it, and he continues throughout his life to talk much more than he writes. Writing is to language what a portrait is to a living person.

Language and literature. Literature is a fine art that uses the elements of a language as its medium of expression. In written form language lends itself admirably to prescription and manipulation, and this is readily adapted to the selective and creative purposes of art. But literature is by no means restricted to writing in its creation, and the better the literature, classical or modern, the more fully the phenomena of sound will have been taken into account.

Conclusion. The problems discussed and principles stated in the preceding pages point out the many different issues which have arisen from the new knowledge we have gained about foreign languages. This knowledge, coupled with a changing role of our society in communicating with speakers of other tongues, has led us in the United States to examine better ways of teaching foreign languages to students having a wider range of language learning aptitude. The resultant new materials, new teaching techniques, long sequences of study, and variety of languages offered, have created other problems never before met by foreign language teachers, administrators and guidance personnel. The rest of these pages are devoted to illustrating and suggesting appropriate, modern concepts and practices that must be considered in planning and implementing foreign language curricula in Connecticut today.

II

Foreign Language in Elementary Schools

Foreign Language in Elementary Schools (FLES) is part of the Initial Phase of language study and should not be treated as a separate entity. It is a segment, not a program. Yet because it has grown up and been labeled as an independent program in many schools in the United States, some separate treatment has to be given the subject in this bulletin. This chapter deals with the areas of FLES about which educators in Connecticut may have questions. The actual content of FLES is covered in Chapter III as part of the whole foreign language curriculum.

Development

FLES—here construed as kindergarten through grade six—has a rather long history in the United States. A successful program, limited to the gifted only, existed as early as 1921 in Cleveland, and another such program was soon to be found in P.S. 208 in Brooklyn. Two reports, submitted in April 1952 and March 1953 to the Yale-Barnard Conference on the teaching of French, made evident the fact that many other places had started very successful FLES programs.

On May 3, 1952, Dr. Earl J. McGrath, then United States Commissioner of Education, gave strong impetus to the movement by urging that foreign languages be started in the elementary school. He organized a conference of 350 educators and laymen, which met in January 1953 and did a great deal toward furthering FLES.

Meanwhile, in December 1952, the Rockefeller Foundation made a grant to the Modern Language Association for a three-year study (later extended to six years under a $235,000 grant) to determine how foreign languages should be taught in America. Just after this phase ended on August 31, 1958, President Eisenhower signed into law the National Defense Education Act, with a proposed life of six years, since extended. In the course of the succeeding years, more than thirty million dollars has been spent for FLES under Title VI of this Act.

In 1951, foreign languages were being taught in public elementary schools of 57 scattered American communities. By the fall of 1955, the number had grown to nearly 2,000 schools in 44 states. No one knows exactly the present dimensions of this remarkable development, but it has extended to all 50 states. In Connecticut, at present there are foreign language programs reported in 100 of the state's 860 elementary schools. Forty of Connecticut's 169 towns are involved in some kind of FLES activity.

Rationale

The mastery of another language can no longer be considered a cultural frill. Rather, it is considered by many to be a "major psychological weapon." Many factors have contributed to the recognition of the need for people with proficiency in more than one language. Important among these are increasing international involvement, growing business interests in newly established nations, increasing interchange among nations of scientific and technological information, and improving travel facilities with a resulting increase in tourism. Added to these is the present need to communicate, within many of our larger cities, with a large non-English speaking segment of the population. Beginning the study of a foreign language in elementary school offers the greatest potential for developing foreign language skill in a large portion of the American public.

The consensus today is that both an understanding and a speaking knowledge of a foreign language are essential for communication; and since the ability to understand, to speak, to read, and to write cannot be sufficiently achieved in a two- or three-year sequence, the longer sequence will have to be accomplished by starting the study of a foreign language in the elementary school.

The proponents of FLES contend that traditional language programs miss what Havighurst called the "teachable moment." They believe, also, that traditional programs miss important aspects of language learning because of their deep-rooted emphasis upon the written language and the grammar-translation approach.

Professionals involved in FLES have found what they feel to be sound reasons for teaching elementary school children a foreign language and the culture of the people who speak that language. These reasons may be divided into four areas: educational, sociological, neurological, and psychological.

First, consider the educational reasoning. The type of face-to-face communication demanded today integrates the learning of a second language with the total educational program. Studies have indicated that children often benefit in their general education by 15-20 minutes of daily foreign language practice. They respond to foreign language instruction in a manner entirely comparable to their acceptance of the basic subject matter of an elementary school curriculum.

Sociological reasoning supports FLES. In 1960, there were in the United States more than thirty-four million speakers of languages other than English. FLES can achieve two distinct goals in this situation. First, in bilingual communities, it can develop a desirable empathy for the ethnic groups speaking the foreign language. Secondly, in monolingual communities, it can promote a more positive attitude toward, and a greater understanding of, people who speak another language. These benefits accrue as insight is gained into the characteristics and attitudes of the people whose language is being learned.

Recent research in child development has shown that the foundations of social attitudes, prejudices, and interests are laid in the primary years, and that it is very difficult to establish a balanced outlook on foreign languages in later years if the whole early training has been rigidly monolingual.

Two leading neurosurgeons, Wilder Penfield of Canada and Paul Glees of Germany and England, have advanced reasons for introducing foreign language study in the elementary school. Penfield found that the brain of a child has an unusual capacity for learning language, but that this capacity decreases with time. Glees stresses the limited capacity of the human organism for speech. He believes that since speech does not represent a skill requiring a trained mind, it is wise to begin to speak a second language early and to develop it as one would develop a good habit. Studies of immigrants to the United States have shown that those who arrived before their tenth birthday learned to speak English without an accent. Those who arrive later in life retain a more marked accent. The older the immigrant, the more marked his accent.

It is a psychological fact that young children learn languages readily and idiomatically. They have a natural curiosity about language and are often intrigued by words. Most do not seem to feel the need for translation which plagues the older student. Also, younger children have fewer inhibitions and less fear of making mistakes. They are natural imitators, the curve of learning by imitation being recognized as highest in the first decade of life.

Perhaps most important psychologically is the fact that the preponderance of evidence derived from FLES programs indicates that a child entering school has sufficient command of his native language to enable him to handle another with no adverse effects either to him or to his native language.

From the preceding reasoning it can be concluded that, given adequate conditions, FLES can provide an effective start in a foreign language. It cannot, however, survive in isolation. To be effective—even to be justified—it must be a meaningful segment of a carefully planned, thoroughly articulated program of language study with objectives clearly defined.

Objectives

The objectives of FLES, like those of foreign language teaching in general, are at once cultural and linguistic, both faces of the same coin, complementary and inseparable. The student completing the FLES segment should possess positive attitudes toward the language he has been learning and toward its native speakers, together with a "built-in feeling for the vocabulary and body gestures that typically accompany the second language and for the formulas of politeness and of emotionally colored commentary typical for that language" (Nelson Brooks, *Language Instruction—Perspective and Prospectus,* p. 5). He should have acquired also a mastery of the sound system (acceptable ability to understand the spoken word and to produce the sounds of the language), with all sound-letter correspondence well in hand, command of a limited number of high-frequency lexical items, and control over basic structures as yet undetermined in number, this factor governed by a variety of conditions detailed later.

The student should have also, near the end of the FLES sequence, beginning reading and writing skills in the foreign language, limitations upon these being imposed by the necessity for developing and maintaining the audio-lingual skills. A further function of FLES learning is to create within the student a desire to pursue his activities into his succeeding school years and beyond the termination of his formal education. More extended experience and research may reveal the possibility of achieving other goals not yet fully apparent. For instance, beneficial effects in other areas of the curriculum may be noted.

Materials and Procedures

If foreign language instruction is treated as a total program, it follows that materials and procedures associated with the FLES segment should be covered as part of the description of the whole foreign language curriculum. The attention of the reader whose special interest is in FLES is directed to Chapter III, The Initial Phase, Level One. The description of listening, speaking and reading skills is appropriate for FLES, and a paragraph about writing points out certain special considerations for this skill. The sections on structure, class procedure (except for use of the language laboratory) and general procedures contain suggestions which will be of great interest to FLES teachers.

Conditions for Success

The success of a FLES program is contingent upon factors that seem at first to be widely divergent. No priority is given to these conditions here, but all can be fulfilled with foresight, insight, and the unfailing evaluation that time must bring.

A good FLES teacher is a prime requisite. The preponderance of research indicates that the best results are obtained by a specialist. Beyond mastery of language, materials and methods, he must have a close knowledge of the psychology of the elementary school child, knowledge amounting almost to empathy. The importance of this rapport can hardly be overemphasized. One of his objectives is to instill in his students an appreciation of speakers of the foreign language as fellow human beings. He must therefore exhibit this quality in himself. To know the children well enough to recognize and respond to differences in their learning abilities, and to be aware of countless other pertinent details about them, are necessities. It would seem to follow that the teacher cannot deal effectively with more than ten classes, or a maximum of 300 individuals.

The FLES teacher cannot achieve real success without a good deal of enthusiasm and vitality, together with a feeling of commitment to very rewarding work. A sense of audience is also a necessity; a good teacher knows when his students have "tuned out." He will have, and will exercise freely, a light touch, a sense of humor that will relax the class with a good laugh. He will find his ingenuity constantly challenged in his efforts to bring out the best from his students.

Although successful FLES programs may exist under varying conditions, certain ones have consistently been found necessary. These have been set forth in a Policy Statement of the Connecticut State Advisory Committee on Foreign Language Instruction as follows:

- The program is recommended to the board of education by the superintendent of schools and is financed, operated and controlled by the local board.
- There is an adequate budget for the program, which is not obtained at the expense of the regular elementary school budget.
- The program is an integral and serious part of the school day, well planned, sequential, carefully articulated with the junior and senior high school programs that are to follow. There is a qualified coordinator who is given sufficient time to provide proper assistance and supervision.
- The time allotted to foreign language instruction is fifteen to twenty minutes daily. In any case, the total time of qualified instruction is not less than seventy-five minutes weekly.

Other factors also play an important role in producing a sound FLES sequence. The foreign language must be accepted as a basic part of the school curriculum by students, classroom teachers, foreign language teachers, administrators, and the public. Support can be gained from students not only by teaching them well but by telling them, and reminding them from time to time, of the reasons for audio-lingual learning and its procedures. Staff cooperation in matters such as preparation of the class, correlation with other areas of the curriculum, and help in establishing a "cultural island" can usually be earned if the foreign language teacher is assiduous in his efforts, as in arriving and leaving on schedule, for instance. It goes without saying that a FLES program should not be instituted at all without the wholehearted understanding and approval of administrators and the general public.

In sum, though FLES is coming of age, all concerned must be realistic in their expectations of its chances of fulfilling its promise. The need for more observation, experimentation, and research is very pressing. It is quite certain that the questions have been defined. Many of the answers are still to be found.

Considerations and Future

The future of FLES will inevitably be determined by its objectives. These objectives, as stated earlier, should be developed by reference to the educational and psychological development of children and to the language needs of the community. The results of experimentation should be taken into account, and the objectives with regard to levels of language, skills to be taught, information to be transmitted, and attitudes to be acquired should be defined as clearly as possible.

No program should even be considered until articulation and coordination from the elementary grades through senior high school can be assured. Hastily devised "status" programs which encourage false hopes and excessive expectations in the minds of students and their parents are to be avoided. Also necessary before beginning is assurance by the school board that the program will not be ended after a year or two.

One of the first considerations, after a program has been agreed upon, is which pupils should study a foreign language. The consensus is that when the foreign language is an integral part of the curriculum, all study it. It must be recognized that there are measurable differences in linguistic ability for even very young children, and slow learners must be encouraged. Methods must be devised to help them achieve even a modicum of success. No pupil should drop out of the language program when he experiences difficulty any more than he should drop out of reading or mathematics or any other area of the basic curriculum. With such students, particularly, the specialist should make every effort to establish a vital rapport.

A consideration following immediately upon who should study the language is the amount of time that should be provided for this study. Bringing a foreign language program into an already crowded curriculum and arranging a schedule can present seemingly insurmountable problems. But it can be and has been accomplished. Initially, 15 to 20 minutes daily should be provided. When this has not been possible, schools have arranged other schedules, but admittedly they are less than ideal. Later, when more emphasis is placed on reading and writing, longer time blocks will be needed.

Having planned a program and secured a place in the schedule, one must next determine who will teach the foreign language. There are two extremes in thinking present here. One is that the use of audiovisual and audio-lingual aids can offset a poor command of the language by the teacher. The other is that the program should be abandoned unless "trained and superior" (Hocking, 1964) teachers are available. Neither of these points of view is realistic. Various levels of language expertise must be combined with various degrees of reliance upon material aids. Material alone cannot make a program. The teacher remains a vital part, and the success of any program will depend upon how the teacher uses the materials available. It has been found that the most successful programs are those taught by foreign-language specialists who combine an understanding of the psychology of the elementary school child with a mastery of the immediate material.

Teacher training remains a vital problem. Teacher training institutions must provide both language teaching and training in methodology. The language program must include study of:

- The contemporary language with a stress on the spoken language;
- The background and culture of the country concerned; and
- Modern techniques of language teaching.

The starting of a program should not have to wait until there is an adequate supply of well-trained teachers. (This will be a slow development.) Carefully guided teachers can achieve. However, a teacher training program must be regarded as an essential part of FLES. Certification for FLES teachers is a problem that must be solved. Some teacher training institutions, aware of the need, are now planning programs which will provide students with the necessary background in both the language and in elementary education.

Some of the problems within the actual teaching area follow. An important one is the respective roles of the oral and the graphic. In this area, the objectives must be made very clear. Later teaching must not be so conventional as to render negligible the audio-lingual experience. The audio-lingual approach must be continued at the secondary stage. Conversely, FLES, on its part, must acknowledge and be more tolerant of the student's desire to read and write in the early stages, a desire which is actually in harmony with one's attitude toward his native language. It is probably advisable to *phase in* reading and writing, but the approach to such phasing should be experimental and not dogmatic. Much might be learned in respect to the teaching of reading and writing in the foreign language from the teaching of the same in the native language.

Another consideration in the teaching of a foreign language is the use of the native language as a medium of interpretation or as a support. It would now appear that the capacity of children to absorb without conscious attention has been overrated, and a judicious use of the native language in order to avoid misinterpretation is recognized as valid.

Finally, a question of emphasis must be determined. Should the emphasis in a FLES program be on language or culture? The answer here would seem to be that an effective program will include both areas and not practice either one to the exclusion of the other.

There is every indication that FLES is dealing with the problems it has encountered. In doing this, it has changed and will undoubtedly continue to change as it constantly seeks new and better approaches to teaching foreign language to children of elementary school age. A well organized, thoroughly articulated, firmly supported program might well have interesting consequences in the future. It would mean that:*

- Foreign language activities would play some part in school life throughout the educational process, from its early stages in the kindergarten to its final stages in high school.
- A language would normally be taught systematically within the first few years of compulsory schooling and would continue to be taught for periods of five to eight years or more.

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* Valdman, Albert. ***Trends in Language Teaching.*** **"FLES: Achievement and Problems," H. H. Stern. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1966, pp. 279-280.**

- One modern foreign language would be part of every child's school experience.
- A second foreign language could be started two or three years after the first and brought to a high level of competence. Thus, a command of two foreign languages could be achieved by a considerable number of students.
- Language teaching would greatly expand in higher education and the education of teachers, both for initial and in-service courses of training.
- A knowledge of one or two foreign languages would be regarded as a generally accepted part of normal literacy of the ordinary adult. Foreign languages not normally taught in schools would be more widely learned by adults.
- Lastly, the social, political, and cultural life of a society, including, for example, the use this society would make of mass media, would become more unselfconsciously multilingual and multicultural.

III

The Initial Phase

Language learning is an on-going process; hence, great attention should be given to an articulated program for all students. All foreign languages, classical and modern, are integrated into the description in the following sections. FLES is treated as part of the Initial Phase of language study. Where there are unique characteristics of the FLES segment which require separate treatment, different from Level One when it is presented at the secondary-school stage, these are provided under separate paragraphs. Where there are important differences between the modern languages and Latin, these are pointed out, and Chapter VI deals specifically with matters unique to the study of classical languages.

The main objective of Chapters III-VI is to describe a total, well-coordinated program of foreign language instruction which takes all Levels and all languages into account.

Throughout the Initial Phase, the syntax, morphology and style of the spoken language take precedence. Elegant, literary or uncommon structure and vocabulary are added in a later Phase.

LEVEL ONE

In allotting time to each of the four skills in the initial stages of instruction, the development of listening comprehension ability and speaking ability should receive prime emphasis. Introduction to the skills of reading and writing is delayed in order to give priority to establishing the skills of comprehension and speaking on a firm basis. Reading and writing will continue to play a subordinate role during this period of instruction.

Listening Comprehension

The teacher must model clearly and repeatedly throughout the course all the sound patterns of the new tongue that the student is expected to learn. Electro-mechanical devices that aid in repetition are, of course, of great value when properly used. The student should listen to native speakers, either in person or through recordings, when applicable.

Speaking

When new material is presented, speaking should be done by the students, first in chorus, then in sections of the class, then individually. Drill on separate sounds should be given as needed. In general, individual problems of pronunciation that preempt an inordinate amount of time should not be dealt with in class but treated outside of class. In fact, when individuals are responding it is good to have the rest of the students mimic the answer silently. This should assure wider participation in all class activity by all students.

Reading

In proceeding to reading, no matter how long or how short the audio-lingual phase may have been, the pupil should read what he has first learned to speak. The decision about length of the audio-lingual phase should be left to the teacher and the coordinator. The decision will depend upon many variables, such as the language, the age of the pupil, the grade in which the language was introduced, and the pupil's ability to understand and imitate the spoken language. Everything read must be understood, and frequent checks must be made to this end. At first all reading, whether in modern languages or Latin, should be of previously learned materials, recombined dialogues or narratives, structure drills, adaptations, or comparable items. Practice should be given in word recognition, identification of sounds in written form, finding small words in longer words, in fact, by using all word-learning techniques practiced in a language arts program, including "sensible guessing." The emphasis throughout should be on acceptable pronunciation, melody and comprehension.

Writing

Writing can be introduced along with reading and should deal with the same material that the student has heard and said many times. Completion exercises, exercises in changing the structure and form of sentences, and dictation in which the student writes what has been assigned for study add to his sense of accomplishment and to his speed of learning.

In FLES, the limitation of writing should be severe, since it is much more important to develop and maintain understanding and speaking skills. Except for very brief dictations of familiar material, very little writing should be done in class, and this only under supervision. In addition to dictations, two or three lines of a dialogue or narrative could be used for writing exercises. Later, pupils may write answers to questions or engage in similar writing activities. Emphasis in FLES should be on teaching language skills in a variety of activities which will create readiness for the more formal writing to be done at the secondary level.

Having been more deeply engaged in reading and writing, students of Latin by the end of Level One should be able to write simple sentences based on familiar material, to manipulate basic structures by the processes of expansion, transformation or substitution in such sentences, and to write recombinations of familiar material at dictation.

Structure

In dealing with the relationship of foreign language structures to those of English, teachers have been inclined to blame a student's lack of progress in the target language on a lack of knowledge of English grammar. Since much of the structure and organization of the foreign language is in contrast to that of English, this is often a fallacious argument. Difficulty may actually be due to a lack of knowledge of traditional grammar terminology, rather than the inability to understand how English works. It is not necessary to depend upon terminology to teach structure. Contrasting the patterns of the two languages should suffice. It is, after all, the foreign language structure which must be taught in the foreign language classroom.

Little systematic analysis of structure is attempted at this early Level. Rather, a series of situations, perhaps dialogues between two or more people, presents language in its most common function. These inevitably include a wide range of high-frequency form patterns. There should be fifteen to twenty situations of this kind to be assimilated.

The teacher should refer constantly to the total perspective of high frequency patterns to make sure that important structural forms (tenses, auxiliaries, pronoun substitutions and agreements, for example) are not being neglected while other relatively unimportant matters are being overstressed. In the initial stages of language learning, control of structure is far more important than acquaintance with an extensive vocabulary. Recommended rule: maximize structure, minimize vocabulary.

In both structural areas of morphology and syntax, stress should always be placed on the most frequently used forms and structures. Items of lesser frequency must be subordinated to those which are most fundamental and most used. Furthermore, it must be remembered that the items hardest to learn and requiring the greatest amount of practice are those which are in sharpest contrast to the student's own language. Those exactly like English naturally require less practice.

No contrast is more readily apparent or more essential to stress than that some languages depend mostly upon inflection to convey meaning, whereas English depends mostly upon word order. Many current texts, especially those using contrived Latin, give the impression that the target language has a fixed word order, knowledge of which can be a key to the understanding of the meaning of a passage. The American student, conditioned to a word-order language, is all too ready to seize upon this idea and, as a result, may ignore the all-important endings.

Content

Although there has been improvement in recent years, sequential materials are still very much needed, especially when the programs begin in the elementary school. In choosing materials, one must consider the age, interests, and experiences of the pupil. In any case, materials should be organized so that one lesson is built upon the previous lesson. Situations should be of universal interest to children but be typical, where possible, of the culture of the foreign country, particularly of the "deep culture." Giving the pupil a name in the foreign language, and shaking hands with him on greeting or leave-taking on the first day, will indicate to him that he is already experiencing a different culture. It is important for the pupil to realize both similarities and differences in the two cultures concerned.

Within a selected program, units of instruction may use different forms of presentation. The dialogue is very important because of its dramatic appeal. Since much conversation consists of talking about situations, the narrative approach also is important, especially for further practice in the use of the third person. Stories, carefully selected, could be recombination narratives, fairy tales or folk stories appealing to children at the elementary or secondary level.

Systematic presentation of vocabulary should always be planned. Once items have been introduced, the teacher should carry on activities to check comprehension and keep recall active. Vocabulary is not to be studied in terms of isolated words, but meanings must, nevertheless, be made clear to students as new words occur in natural context. Example: It is possible to pair the French *bon* with the English *good* and *jour* with *day*. However, *bonjour* does not mean *good day*. It is simply one of the expressions used when one person greets another in France. Whichever ways are chosen to make meanings clear, the teacher must avoid techniques which reinforce the tendency to believe in a one-to-one relationship between word-meanings in the target language and in English.

In addition to the basic dialogues and narratives, there are certain items of linguistic, cultural and literary value that may be introduced. In connection with the early units, readings in English that reveal valid cultural insights about the new country may be assigned.

Class Procedure

The methods of procedure should be clearly established at the outset. It is important that the students understand what is expected of them and why, for the activity of the foreign language classroom may differ rather sharply from the procedure in other classes. A class or two spent in explanation will bring rich rewards in the months that follow.

At the start of the course, and of each class, the teacher should give the student ample opportunity to work in the foreign language. He should never begin a class by saying, "Are there any questions?" The students require the teacher's aid in reducing the mother tongue to a recessive role so that the small quantity of new language they have mastered may dominate their consciousness. Nevertheless, it would be most unwise to eliminate the use of English by the teacher or to relegate it continually to the final minutes of the class. Whenever meanings seem doubtful, it is the teacher's responsibility to restate meanings either by the use of English, realia or gestures, for parroting of meaningless words is reprehensible at any stage of foreign language learning.

There should be a variety of procedures and techniques used, giving attention to all the language skills and engaging several senses in the learning process. Choral and individual repetition and listening should be a part of all language classroom routines, even though reading and writing may play an earlier and larger role in Latin. Since habit formation is the basis of oral and written communication, repetition will, of course, play a most important role. Each class should contain not only teacher-student exchange, but also exchange between students.

Because of the importance of repetition in habit formation, variety in this aspect of the class program is necessary. The teacher must be the model of correct pronunciation and phrasing. Student responses should be reinforced by the teacher or via tape recordings. Students at Level One should not be asked to utter unfamiliar material. They should hear new words and structures spoken first. Drills concentrating on particular sounds or contrasts can be effective. Listening to tapes is useful. But most of all, the teacher is the model for all new oral material.

The teacher must employ other sources of information, however. Very useful are pictures in magazines from a country where the language is or was spoken, especially pictures of people, clothing, food, transportation, amusements, occupations, homes and buildings, terrain and art objects. Transparencies may be an invaluable medium for presenting some of these pictures. All types of transparencies are useful for diagrams, numbers and words. Included in this group are 35mm slides, lantern slides, and visuals for use on the overhead projector.

Students, too, can contribute to the "cultural island" in the language classroom by readings and reports and by appropriate projects. They may have access to books, coins and clothing from the other country. Pen-pals may be helpful in supplying information and objects which are real representations of another culture. Items of realia can be useful in teaching vocabulary as well as in enriching cultural lessons. Of course, slides, filmstrips and motion picture films are only one step removed from the reality of actual objects. They can be most effective sources of cultural enrichment. More and more films are being designed to play an integrated part in language learning by providing an important medium for practice in listening comprehension.

It is during this Phase of language learning that the language laboratory is probably most important for both modern and classical languages. The unique capabilities of the electronic classroom and, more especially, of the language laboratory (see Chapter IX) are most valid in assisting the language learner at this Level. Practice for skill development is the watchword. Whether for actual development of a command of the oral patterns of speech of a modern foreign language, or as an avenue to a command of the written patterns of Latin, more practice than is possible in the classroom is required if many students are to succeed.

Two half-periods a week are a suggested minimum for laboratory exercises. If possible, these should be in addition to the regular class time. If not, a half-period of class time twice a week can well be spent in the laboratory. Simple repetition exercises, pattern practice, listening comprehension passages and oral fill-ins followed by the complete model provide a learning experience of a most valuable kind. The lab also offers the possibility of testing listening comprehension and speaking ability in the modern languages. In the absence of a language lab, a tape recorder may be used productively in the classroom even though the types of drill will be somewhat more limited in variety and scope.

When a separate language laboratory is used, it is of particular importance that the student realize that the work done in the lab is related to what he does in the language classroom. The student must feel that his laboratory experience is a direct extension of his classroom work. Unless this coordination is carried out, the likelihood is that the laboratory experience will be of little use.

Coordination with classroom activities is a principle which applies, of course, to all extra-class and semi-independent study. Therefore, homework should not include unfamiliar material. Instead, the student should be urged to practice only what has been thoroughly drilled in class. At the same time, readings about the language and culture being studied may be assigned. Once the nature of a pattern practice has been made clear, drill exercises that involve changes in order and form (see Chapter VII) may be done as homework. Material learned orally and then studied for reading and writing may also be done outside of class. The important principle is to ask the student to do as homework only that which he has been prepared to do, so as to minimize the possibility of error.

Suggested General Procedures

The approach should be through the development of the basic four language skills: understanding, speaking, reading, and writing. At this Level, understanding is the most important skill to be developed, followed by speaking. These reinforce each other. In learning a foreign language, the student must go through five steps in order to speak with assurance: recognition, imitation, repetition, variation, and selection. In recognition, the teacher guides the pupil in identifying the sounds, phrases, melody, and structures. In imitation, the child is beginning to acquire active skills in speaking, imitating the model presented. Repetition will challenge his memory, since he will be called upon to learn correctly utterances using structural patterns. Through variation, the teacher will guide him in producing utterances partly similar to and partly different from the models imitated and repeated. There will be varied substitution and transformation drills, question and answer practice, directed dialogue, conversation practice, and any other activity the ingenious teacher can devise. With selection, or free response, the pupil should control structure and basic vocabulary well enough to select freely from his memory the utterance needed to communicate.

The dialogue approach is the one that is commonly used, since one usually thinks in terms of people talking. After the content is understood, pupils should learn the dialogue well enough to be able to dramatize it, answer questions based on it, personalize it, and carry on related activities. Once learned, it can serve as a point of departure for intensive language practice of selected items and structure.

In the presentation of a dialogue or narrative, the situation may be described in clear and simple English. Objects, drawings, and gestures are very helpful. In presenting the dialogue, the teacher should start by having the entire class repeat the first utterance after it has been modeled three or four times. If difficulty is encountered, a backward build-up may be used. After a few utterances have been learned and checked for comprehension, the teacher could then divide the class in half, one half taking one line and the second half the next. He could then proceed to repetition by smaller groups (rows, tables, all the boys, etc.) and, finally, to individual repetition. This entire process will require several days. After a small part of the dialogue has been learned, two pupils could be called to the front of the room to dramatize the situation. Once this stage has been reached, pattern practice should begin.

By practice with pattern drills, the pupil learns structure through repetition of utterances in which the patterns (of sound, form, and order) are either identical to the ones already mastered or have only small and consistent differences. Explanation of grammar becomes secondary, since the pupil should learn proper forms by analogy. For the sake of those who are ready, the generalization should be derived cooperatively by teacher and students or stated by the teacher after a few instances have been given. Then intensive drill should be carried on. Procedures for the presentation of drills may be similar to those for learning other materials. There may be repetition, rotation, substitution, replacement, expansion, transformation, response and rejoinder type drills, as well as other kinds which an imaginative teacher can develop (Chapter VII). It is essential to place learning drills before testing drills. It must be emphasized that, in the learning of a foreign language, much drill is needed, but that drilling *for the sake of drilling* will not accomplish the goals of language learning.

The procedures described are basic to the fundamental skills approach. The teacher should observe proven practices but proceed on the basis of results obtained in his own classroom. Imaginative procedures which prove successful will be the strength of the ingenious teacher.

All of the foregoing discussion is related to live instruction, a teacher in the classroom. In recent years, there has been much contention about the use of television for foreign language instruction. Results and evaluations are still to be studied, but there are promising new developments in the use of this medium, such as two-way communication between a class and the teacher.

Homework

Homework should consist of further practice on what has already been presented and practiced in class. Practice for mastery, memorization, repetition for assurance of habit formation, and, gradually, reading and written practice involving application and use of what is being learned, are all valuable. Assignments beyond the scope of what the student has had in class must be avoided so as to limit, as mentioned earlier, the learning of errors. Wherever possible, the learner should have a perfect model to follow.

Oral practice, especially the learning of patterns through practice on them in language laboratory periods, has an important role in outside preparation. Take-home records help assure accuracy of pronunciation and intonation. Reading assignments on culture also can be given, especially in early stages when much of the learning of the language itself must be done in the classroom under the teacher's guidance. The classroom is not just a place for reciting. It is the primary place where language learning occurs.

Measurement

Testing is an important part of any course. It sets in the minds of many students the standard for what must be learned. It is also the primary means of evaluating progress and identifying objectively the deficiencies which need to be remedied. An approaching test encourages the kind of review and synthesis of previous learning essential to the acquisition of a skill. Finally, of course, tests serve the time-honored purpose of helping to evaluate for grading. Tests, then, are an integral part of the process of teaching and learning.

Tests vary both in length and purpose. The short, 5-10 minute quiz, given at any appropriate time, has as its purpose to check on the mastery of a single item of sound, form or syntax, or of the control of a particular skill, perhaps one which has been practiced in the class period just being concluded. The longer lesson- or unit-test, given whenever a cohesive unit of material has been completed (probably at a week- or two-week interval), checks on the mastery and retention of a broader area of material and a greater variety of skills. The marking period or term test aims not only at checking mastery of a considerable amount of material and all skills, but also at the integration and synthesis of skills which develop into mastery of the language.

It is important to "test what you teach." All aspects of the course should be included in the testing program. If oral use of the language is desired and taught, then oral work should be graded and tested. If work in derivation and culture is important, it too must be subject to grading and testing. (As a corollary to this axiom, it is equally important to "teach what you test," leaving the accomplishment of no aspect of the work to the students' unaided efforts.)

The teacher must not only be aware of the overall aim of the test but also have a specific aim clearly in mind for each item on the test. Care must be taken that the questions measure what they are intended to measure with as little undue interference from other factors as possible. If a short quiz or a question on a longer test is designed to check mastery of certain types of noun uses, for example, the verbs in the sentences used should involve no problems. They should be entirely familiar forms so that the mastery of the main item stands out clearly. In a lesson or unit test it is desirable to have several degrees of complexity so as to diagnose difficulties at various levels of mastery.

Speaking ability presents the most difficult problem in testing. From the beginning, students should be made to realize that their oral production is under constant evaluation and that it is considered an important aspect of the course. The teacher can test students individually or in the laboratory if recording equipment is available. Such speaking tests include the following: echo imitation, directed utterance, personalized questions on learned materials as well as items such as automatic greetings, questions-answers and rejoinders. In addition to correctness of form, intonation, promptness and naturalness of expression are important in the evaluation of the speaking skill.

LEVEL TWO

It is important that a systematic review of Level One take place during the first few weeks of Level Two, especially if a time gap has occurred. This period should not be restricted, however, to pure review, for students must feel at all times that progress in language learning is being made. The change to Level Two may not correspond with the beginning of a new school year, but the shift to greater emphasis on reading will characterize the change in modern languages, and Latin classes will be concerned with reading of passages of more sustained length.

A reminder: Even in the reading and writing activities of the modern language student, the content is based on the spoken language. The Latin student is still mainly occupied with the basic structures of the language.

Listening Comprehension

The modeling by the teacher of the sounds and intonation patterns in new materials is still very important. Skill in listening to longer amounts of material should be developed. The language laboratory and even the tape recorder alone can be of great value in continuing the development of this skill.

Speaking

In the modern languages, choral response is still useful at this Level, but exchange of spoken language between teacher and students and between one student and another takes on greater importance. Students should be encouraged to give a variety of answers to questions based on text material. They must also become accustomed to reacting to statements made by their teacher and by other class members.

Oral use in Latin maintains the same importance here as in Level One. It serves to demonstrate that Latin is a real language and provides an efficient means of dealing with a greater number of structures than could be dealt with by writing them.

Reading

During the early stages of Level Two, reading should continue to be based on what first has been heard. Thereafter, the student may be asked to read without assistance material which has not been read aloud to him. The material must still be basic — conversational types of structure and vocabulary. But as the year progresses and as more of the basic structures and wider vocabulary have been mastered, reading material should be presented for direct understanding. This reading should not contain extensive new vocabulary which would pose the dual threat of interfering with audio-lingual skills and reducing reading to deciphering. New vocabulary should be introduced systematically and always in meaningful contexts.

Writing

The same types of writing should be used as on Level One, but incorporating more structures. Transformations become an increasingly efficient tool as knowledge of the structures of the language expands.

A considerably greater role may be given to writing at this Level. Dictation and various controlled writing exercises continue to play an important part. Throughout this Level, the attempt to write without having adequate models to follow is only too likely to result in wrong learning. Eventually, students should have freedom to write résumés of material they have read, controlled paragraphs, and dialogues based on previous learnings. Although creativity is the goal, it still must be controlled at this Level.

Content

During Level One, a complete presentation and assimilation of phonology patterns should have been made and the most common patterns of order and form learned. At Level Two there should be a constant effort to reinforce the patterns already learned and to introduce frequent structural forms that have not yet appeared. There should now be an attempt at a fairly complete use of such common structural forms as the tenses of verbs or the pronouns used in normal speech. As the year progresses, practice in less frequently recurring structures should be given.

At the beginning of Level Two, extensively personalized dialogues may continue to serve as a point of departure. The teacher should elicit new and old vocabulary in as great a variety of contexts as possible.

Since the dialogues and short narratives have played a major role in Level One as well as during the beginning of Level Two, the emphasis should move towards longer narratives as a point of departure. Vocabulary should be introduced in even greater frequency by means of sentences or short conversations which supply contexts to these new words. Upon mastery of these sentences, students should read narratives which will contain frames for structure drills as well as topics for intra-classroom exchanges. In acquiring new vocabulary, the student will benefit from guidance as to the new items he should attempt to learn, for obviously he cannot learn them all. A distinction must be made between vocabulary for recognition and for recall.

At this Level, reading selections must present the language as it is used in the daily life of its people and must be concerned with topics of interest to the students. These selections should contain insights into the culture of the country, and they should serve as vehicles for language learning.

Culture

In cultural content, Level Two should rely most heavily upon the personal contribution of the teacher as a representative of the new social community. In dialogues and in the reading, significant cultural items, both linguistic and non-linguistic, should receive due attention. Records and tapes made abroad offer remarkably effective ways of introducing cultural items of high authenticity whenever they can be effectively related to topics currently being studied.

Not only should students develop an appreciation of great artistic achievements of the country whose language they are studying, but they must also become acquainted with the way of life, the value systems and the problems faced by the people in these countries — in other words with the people's "deep culture." Students must be freed from their unicultural limitations. However, if they are exposed only to contrasts between their own country and other cultures, there is danger that they will merely be reinforced in their innate suspicion of all elements in the foreign culture. The *sabot* and *serape* approach can be dangerous; a little quaintness goes a long way. It is wise to devote some attention to cities, sidewalks, subways and airports, areas where life may be similar.

The "cultural island" that centers about the language behavior of the teacher can be augmented by the presence in the classroom of realia that are characteristic of life in the country being studied. The appeal of such realia is to the eye rather than to the ear, and they can aid greatly in establishing situations for purposes of conversation. The books, periodicals, maps, posters, pictures, coins, articles of clothing, and art objects that are brought in should be authentic, representative, and related whenever possible to classroom activities.

Class Program

The teacher should spend the first few minutes actively involving students and using material over which the students already have control. This will activate the students' language behavior and stimulate responses in the foreign language, which can be more extensive now than in Level One. The class will now be ready for choral response, questions, dialogue review, and oral give-and-take between teacher and students and between one student and another, both with old material and new.

It is advised that pattern practice involving drills and new and partly-new structure forms and vocabulary be a part of every class, though it must not be continued too long at a time. Oral drills may be followed by exercises in reading and writing. Needless to say, all this will be in the foreign language, with strict enforcement of rules about a very minor use of English as may be deemed wise by the teacher.

The language laboratory again offers a remarkable and effective way of providing practice in the language skills under excellent conditions of learning. To be most useful, the exercises used in the laboratory must be closely linked to the work in the classroom. The drills on structure, vocabulary, and listening comprehension should involve the texts of the lessons currently being studied. Through the use of recordings made by native speakers, the laboratory can also furnish a cultural experience that is fully authentic.

Homework should involve exercises that will strengthen patterns of language behavior already familiar to the students and may include a lab assignment. If available, the use of homework discs should be encouraged. Homework in Level Two may reflect the increased emphasis on reading and writing. Exercises should be well explained by the teacher in order to prevent a proliferation of errors. In this way, homework will be an extension of classroom activities.

Conclusion

The completion of Phase I of foreign language study should mark the attainment of mastery of the basic course. All essentials of the "everyday" language should be understood, although few students will have attained what might be called fluency in a modern language or what classicists might call true command of the basic structures of Latin.

It is at this point that modern language students should have sufficient preparation to undertake such standardized proficiency tests as the "L" level of the Modern Language Association's Cooperative Language Tests, available in several of the modern languages from Educational Testing Service at Princeton, New Jersey.

Up-to-date, standardized tests which reflect modern emphases in Latin are slow to appear. Much reliance for measurement at this point in Latin study must be placed on local tests and tests presented by the publishers of the text materials in use in the local school system.

IV

The Intermediate Phase

Phase Two of our language learning sequence represents a stage at which the different goals of Latin and modern languages make more differentiated treatment necessary. (The user of this bulletin is referred to the definitions of Phases and Levels in the Introduction to recall more clearly the differences in emphases.) Therefore, those whose interests lie particularly with classical languages may find less appropriate the paragraphs on listening comprehension and speaking skills.

The change to Phase Two should be obvious, since it involves the study of much more of the structure and vocabulary of written language, as will be noted in the following descriptions. The content of the spoken language continues to be important for listening comprehension and speaking skills, but the vocabulary and style of written language may now concern the student in reading and writing. It is no longer necessary that the student hear and say everything he is asked to read. He will deal with material which was created to be read, not spoken.

LEVEL THREE

Listening Comprehension

The teacher should continue to provide the class with constant practice in comprehension by introductory remarks on topics that are both familiar and unfamiliar to the students. As in previous Levels, he should continue to speak with students at the average speed of normal colloquial speech, expecting comprehension without repeating several times and using a vocabulary that invites the full attention of the listener without discouraging him. The ability to comprehend accurately is a skill in which practically all students can hope to attain and maintain a satisfactory competence.

Speaking

While continuing to provide practice in comprehension, the teacher should conduct the class so as to require student response. Choral response is less important, and individual response should now be more frequent and more sustained. The question-and-answer procedure between teacher and student is a technique that may be varied in many ways. Questions may be answered as if the student were a character in a story. One student may be directed to ask a question of another, who gives an answer in the first person singular. This in turn may be repeated by still another student in the third person singular. Of course, such questions should be prepared by the teacher before class, and the students should give their answers with books closed. The teacher will do well not to ask questions from an open book, but rather to use a sheet of paper or card containing the list of questions he has prepared.

An effective way of using a sound film at this Level it to show it with the sound turned off. Students may be asked to describe, in the target language, the situation depicted. This may be done as the initial exposure to the film if students are fairly advanced in their speaking ability or as a follow-up activity to the first screening of the film.

Reading

At this Level, more reading may be done as homework. A large portion of class time may be spent in discussing the content and drilling the structures and vocabulary of the reading assigned. There should be new reading assigned every day so that interest may be maintained while ample time is left for full assimilation of the linguistic forms encountered. Students must have sustained practice in attaching meaning to the forms of the new language without reference to the mother tongue. However, occasional translation may be used by the teacher to clarify meaning, or to elucidate more difficult passages. Students should be encouraged to use a dictionary written wholly in the foreign language.

Writing

Practice in writing should continue to be without the use of English and should include: the rewriting of texts by changing the identity of the speaker and the time of the events; controlled compositions in which subject matter and treatment are specifically indicated (go to someone's house, return a book, thank him for it, etc.); and the writing of résumés, summaries and précis paragraphs. Using a given written passage as a model, the student may write a similar passage on another but comparable subject, imitating the style and the vocabulary of the author being studied. Originality should be encouraged, but students should be guided to remain within the structure at their command.

Structure

Without imposing upon the student an exhaustive study of grammar for its own sake, the teacher should plan drills so that all the important areas of structural variations are met, learned and reviewed, using the reading material as a meaningful context for such drills. It is important, however, that reading passages be chosen and studied for their own value rather than for the examples of structural patterns they may happen to contain. It is advisable that students now have available to them at all times a small reference grammar containing a formal summary of all the commonly used structural forms, but not a technical analysis of all the grammatical resources of the language. Grammar rules still are not an end in themselves but only tools to help guide the student in understanding and writing the foreign language.

Content

In the reading and cultural content of Level Three, considerable freedom of choice is permitted. Various forms of literature may be introduced, including novels and plays of moderate length, short stories, and poetry. Useful annotated bibliographies of such material are available from the Modern Language Association and, for Latin, from the Connecticut State Department of Education. As in the earlier Levels, realia and the language laboratory can play a most effective role, especially as they are made to relate directly to the material currently being read and studied. The well-equipped language laboratory, properly used, can add greatly to the improvement of the student's skill in comprehension and speaking and to his feeling of accomplishment in the work of the course.

Homework

Carefully selected readers, a reference grammar, and exercises and worksheets within the language competence of the students may take on increased importance in study outside of class. It is important that the student know exactly what is expected of him as he prepares his homework. Considerable attention must be paid to the procedures he is to follow so that his efforts outside of class may be fully productive.

LEVEL FOUR

Level Four is essentially little more than the extension of Level Three, with the exception that much more time may be devoted to writing than in any of the previous Levels.

Continued emphasis falls on reading and writing, without neglecting the skills of listening comprehension and speaking. Indeed, the audio-lingual skills should be required as an integral part of the treatment of what is read and written.

An advance in Level should be apparent in the content of the course and in the greater degree of liberation in all language skills. There should be more reading material and a greater awareness of cultural values and literary contributions as such.

Since no study of literature can be attempted without a solid foundation in the four skills, "belles lettres" should not be introduced until the development of these skills is far enough advanced to make such study rewarding. The reading of works of literary merit is not to be excluded, but they should be read chiefly for enjoyment of content. Critical analysis properly belongs in the next Phase of foreign language study.

At this stage, contemporary writings currently of interest to the student can be used to improve skills of reading. Written drills (résumés, paragraph manipulation and other techniques previously mentioned for Level Three) should be based on this reading. Reading of foreign periodicals and other popular writings may add a new dimension to the study of contemporary problems and help students gain insight into the "mentalité" of the man-in-the-street.

Conclusion

Having successfully finished Phase Two or the Intermediate Phase of foreign language study, the student of contemporary or classical languages should be confident that he has accomplished the skill-development goals of the program. He should, consequently, be ready to take such tests as the M level of the Modern Language Association's Cooperative Tests, or the College Entrance Examination Board achievement exams if he plans to go to college. Many students may never go beyond this stage in the public schools. Some may never go beyond Phase One where, in the modern languages, the main concern is with spoken language. The student is not prepared to use his language skill independently until he has completed the Intermediate Phase of the foreign language program, however. This may have taken the Latin student three or more years of study. The modern language student will have spent four or more years at this task. The aim from now on will be to maintain the skill which has been developed by continuing to use it in worthwhile activities. The Advanced Phase will offer the most freedom to students, teachers and curriculum planners.

V

The Advanced Phase

Only broad guidelines are offered for this Phase of the foreign language curriculum, because it gives the most opportunity for innovative planning by the local schools. The skill-development Phases having been finished, there is little need to restrict the school, teacher or student in the kinds of activities undertaken to put language to use.

Provision for study on these Levels should be extended in those schools where language study has been begun in the elementary grades (FLES) or grade seven and/or where provision is made for accelerated groups. For students who reach this Level of language study after a sequence which has included a FLES segment, it is reasonable to expect that the fundamental skills have been thoroughly reinforced. Several possibilities for keeping these skills at a high level of competence are available for incorporation into the curriculum:

> For superior students with a literary interest, the Advanced Placement Program may be offered. Care should be taken to select the students for such a course rather than to offer it to *anyone* at this Level. The course should not be offered if students do not exhibit a high degree of language skill or do not express a deep interest in pursuing it with success.
>
> A course conducted using the foreign language in teaching cultural trends, history, economics, geography and sociology of the area or country whose language is being studied may also be made available. Such a course would cut across traditional curriculum lines and would afford the perfection and retention of the basic skills, while providing the students with a broad cultural understanding of another people and a means of evaluating their own nation's problems and needs. Such a study should be so organized that credit for the language and credit for the social studies course could be assigned jointly.
>
> A course could be offered which is designed to continue the four basic skills through the study of selected literary texts supplemented by a concise review grammar. In such a course, the teacher must choose with discretion the pieces of literature and determine in advance the most effective means of presentation. A broad choice of literary works should be available for the teacher, who must make his appraisal annually in the light of the preparation, interests, and abilities of his students. Care should be taken not to demand of the student a degree of literary interpretation and analysis superior to that which he has attained with mastery in his English course. The teacher should never permit literary pursuits to interfere with the continuing development of the basic skills of communication.

More independent study, with a class meeting as a whole group only once or twice a week with the teacher, could be planned for these Levels of instruction. Modern technology, including the new, independent study carrel, film loops, recordings, the language laboratory, and programed learning, can contribute to a meaningful course by giving the student the opportunity to listen to, to view, and to experience scenes from plays, readings from poetry, and other forms of literature.

VI

Classical Languages

The purpose of this chapter is to highlight certain principles which apply to the study of classical languages only. Since the only language of this type now being studied in Connecticut's public schools is Latin, this chapter will be devoted to complementary remarks concerning Latin programs.

The *complementary* nature of these statements must be emphasized. This chapter is not meant to stand on its own as a guide for teachers of Latin. Most of the suggestions in Chapters III, IV and V are appropriate for Latin, and the content of this chapter is intended to serve as a clarification.

The Initial Phase

Level One

It is most important at the outset that students be made aware of the fact that Latin is a language and that they learn at once, by imitating the teacher and by oral practice, to pronounce correctly and to articulate some simple material. It is also important, especially if this is their first experience with a foreign language, that students become acquainted with a few basic facts about language, i.e. the ways of arriving at meaning, and the differences which exist between languages in sound, structure, and word-meanings. The difference in importance of word order and of inflections in Latin and English should be discussed and illustrated so as to break down any tendency of students to regard the new language as peculiar or to resist actively the differences from English. Such understanding saves much time in the actual process.

Listening and Speaking

Even though oral communication is not the principal aim of the study of Latin, there are reasons why these oral skills are basic to good language learning:

- Pronouncing accurately and hearing the correct pronunciation enable the student to differentiate forms and words which look similar but have different sounds and different meanings.

- Oral accuracy contributes to classroom efficiency, since many points can be dealt with orally without recourse to the slower process of writing.

- Correct oral responses to questions help develop mastery of fundamental structure patterns in the new language.

- Correct oral phrasing aids in the recognition of thought grouping of words.

- Correct reading, made habitual from the first days of learning the language, is fundamental to the proper appreciation of all ancient literature, especially oratory and poetry. Eloquence and poetic nuances alike are lost when silenced.*

Word study

If the ability to determine the meaning of unfamiliar English words is recognized as one of the important results of the study of Latin, and if the ability to determine the meaning of a Latin word from other familiar words is a major goal, then word study should be initiated as soon as possible in Level One. This ability is not an automatic transfer from daily exposure to Latin words. Formal study of word formations is important. Casual reference to derivatives does not suffice. Items should be introduced gradually, at times which are appropriate to the Latin being studied. Eventually a complete picture of basic elements of word formation should have been developed.

Suggested General Procedures

All teachers gradually develop a number of interesting, vivid, methods of describing and presenting various items of structure. Direct explanation by the teacher of new material may often be the best, most concise, and most economical method of presentation. However, there is also great value in having students see the new point in context and work out the idea with the help of the teacher. Such an inductive process requires time and deftness in guiding the students' observations, but the challenge to thought rather than pure memory is stimulating and, since a person often remembers best when he thinks out something for himself, the procedure is worth while at least for important topics.

It is important that the student constantly realize that the complex morphological system of Latin has an essential function as a key to meaning. It is important that he see forms in a context and practice them in sentences, however brief. After the importance of inflection has been driven home to him, the learning of paradigms will appear meaningful and valuable. They will become a useful frame of reference that will keep in order this complex system. The two processes of practice in context and learning of paradigms actually are likely to be done in an interwoven fashion (presentation, practice, memorization), but care must be taken that the student is always aware of the use of the forms and does not regard them as a pattern learned in a vacuum, isolated from function.

It is just as important in Latin as in modern languages to stress the forms and structures which are most used and to make students thoroughly familiar with them. Since some currently used texts tend to give equal stress to much less basic matters, teachers should be aware of the results of frequency studies so as to determine their own emphasis in the teaching of structure.

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*Correct pronunciation for a given author or work depends upon the time in which the work was written. As modern English differs from Chaucerian and Shakespearian English, the pronunciation of Latin in the time of Caesar and Cicero differed in many respects from that used in the Middle Ages. At least three main periods of Latin pronunciation are distinguishable: preclassical, classical or Roman, and medieval or church style. It is common practice in our public schools to use the pronunciation of the classical period, correct for the majority of the authors read.

It is well for the teacher to avoid setting up narrow, fixed meanings for various forms and to minimize the learning of rules and elaborate terminology for their identification. Understanding of the form or structure in a Latin context and comprehension of its function should be emphasized. Meaning must be analyzed but in a broad context and not by setting up artificial equivalencies which turn out to be useless in many future situations. Some terminology is necessary but the amount can be minimal, with the major emphasis on use and practice of Latin rather than on having students learn to do minute description. The fixed meaning sets up a narrow, confining straitjacket not conducive to mobility in comprehension. The learning of labels — which can only be pasted on what is already understood and, therefore, does not promote the gaining of an understanding — is time consuming and creates a sense of artificiality. Both give an undesirable dependence upon English as a basis for comprehension.

Oral question and answer in Latin is one of the most useful of teaching devices. The right questions can be used to develop mastery of forms and structure as well as to elicit vocabulary. A picture — whether in a book, projected from a filmstrip or slide, or sketched on a transparency for an overhead projector — is an excellent basis for questions, especially if it depicts action. Even sentences written on the board can be a basis for questions, and this technique can be extended to related reading later on. Care must be taken that the questions provide valid practice in forms and syntax, and that, in the haste or enthusiasm of oral work, errors in usage and construction or English word order are not allowed to creep in. Teachers new to this technique will need to prepare questions in advance and be alert to correctness of student responses.

The same types of question and answer may be used for writing practice, in addition to the types of exercises suggested in Chapter III. These should largely replace the traditional procedure of turning English sentences into Latin. The values gained from contrasting the structures of the two languages are often best realized in the more advanced Levels of work. In Phase One such sentences are useful mostly as an indication of mastery of structure rather than as a means of learning it. If such sentences are used for review or practice, work is best done in class with careful breaking down of the process into steps, each checked by the teacher before continuing to the next.

Level Two

Forms and syntax should still remain primary. The learning of vocabulary should not be allowed to interfere with or to be substituted for these more important items. Yet attention to increasing vocabulary should be given in the course of Level Two so that some of what will be needed at Level Three will have been anticipated and practiced in reading and exercises.

Culture

Students should continue the process begun on Level One of increasing their awareness of the ancient Romans, their beliefs, customs and ideas. Some of this can be accomplished by reports on library reading of biography and novels with the ancient setting well presented. Books on the archaeological investigation of such sites as Pompeii offer real interest to students at this Level.

Reading

Reading material should continue to be tailored to the range of structures and vocabulary within the reach of the students. The evidence of adaptation should decrease as good technique is developed for actual reading of Roman authors. Such material as adaptations from myth (Ovid) and history (Livy), as well as other interesting items in some of the readers suggested for Level Two in *Latin Readers: An Annotated Bibliography* (Connecticut State Department of Education), are desirable.

The Intermediate Phase

Level Three

This Level, like the previous ones, is an amount of work, not a block of time. It represents the period of transition from a major emphasis on the learning of morphology and syntax to a major emphasis on the application of this learning to the primary goal of reading comprehension.

Unlike a modern language sequence, which will take much longer, this Level may be reached by mature, accelerated students of Latin early in the second year of high school study. By many it will be reached in the middle or second half of that year. Some will not reach it until the third year.

Both the beginning point of the sequence and the ability and maturity of students are factors which will affect progress. The important consideration is the nature of the work at this Level, for it is here that the basic skills, oral and written, will be used as tools to promote understanding of reading content and to develop comprehension of the cultural implications of what is read.

Oral Skills

There should be stress on correctness of oral reading of the Latin texts studied. Questions and answers in Latin serve as a check on comprehension of material read and as a means of reviewing structure. There should be some development of oral comprehension of passages read aloud.

Reading

The chief work of Level Three consists in developing ability to read the Latin of writers on a mature level in increasing quantities and with emphasis upon comprehension of content. This involves, among many other considerations, learning to watch for the cues and signals of connected reading, handling longer and more involved sentences and developing an awareness of some of the stylistic devices of Roman writers. Such skill is the product in large part of careful grounding in fundamentals, but it also requires the development of a technique suited to the peculiarities of a highly inflected language. Probably nowhere else can the skillful teacher be of more assistance to the student than in aiding him in the rapid and sound development of such a technique.

The student must be trained to read in the word order of the writer of Latin, but analytically, observing inflection and interpreting the word relationships as he goes along. Such analysis may be facilitated in several ways:

- The teacher reads a passage aloud, phrasing the words in thought groups;
- These thought groups are set out on separate lines or on typed sheets, or on filmstrip;
- An analysis of inflection without specific reference to meaning is made. Some call this metaphrasing.

The sense of the sentence should result from mentally combining this sort of analysis with the lexical meaning of the words. This comprehended meaning can be indicated by:

- questions and answers in English;
- questions and answers in Latin (skillful questions require answers that show an understanding of the passage.);
- explanation in the students' own words of the thought of a phrase, sentence, or paragraph;
- simple Latin summarizing.

Most reading comprehension can be checked in such ways as this, orally, so that students concentrate on the Latin of the passage rather than on written notes, which are usually in English. The content of reading at this stage poses a major problem. The traditional procedure for some time has been to use the work of one author, usually Caesar, as a means of developing the requisite reading skills. There are certain points in favor of this procedure, chiefly the fact that uniformity of style and a limited range of vocabulary make the building of reading skill somewhat easier. Those who oppose the use of Caesar at this stage feel that the subject matter is unsuited to the interests of young people today, making it difficult to motivate further study of Latin.

Numerous alternatives have been suggested for the use of more varied and interesting materials, including short selections from a wide variety of writings on topics related to interesting phases of Roman life, ideas or history. Many readers are available from which this sort of selection can be made (see *Latin Readers: An Annotated Bibliography)*.

Vocabulary

A very definite, conscious effort must be made at this Level to expand the students' reading vocabulary. All the possible devices for expanding knowledge of lexical meaning of words should be kept before students constantly. They should be encouraged to deduce meanings intelligently, resorting to dictionary definitions when necessary. Familiar stems, as well as prefixes and suffixes, should be called to students' attention. Use of association, derivation, and logical deduction from context should be encouraged. At this stage, listing of words likely to occur frequently can be a valuable means of giving added concentration on them, provided this procedure is not overworked at the expense of extensive reading.

Word Study

Students should have available a summary list of all prefixes and suffixes commonly used in Latin, and which they have previously studied, for use in determining meaning of new words. For the most part they should know these thoroughly. They should understand the differences between loan words, cognates and derivatives. They should know something of the influence of Latin on English at various periods in history. The heritage of English from Latin via French should be understood, with its influence on spelling variations. Students with a considerably expanded Latin vocabulary can now enjoy collecting derivatives in a field in which they are interested: *e.g.*, biology, chemistry, electronics, space exploration, sports.

Formal translation

It is not an oversight that translation has been largely omitted up to now. Accurate and fluent translation into English is an art involving not only comprehension of the meaning of the Latin but skill in the handling of the English language. It should be respected as such. A young student, struggling to extricate meaning from the Latin passage, cannot at the same time really translate without tending to develop reliance on outside help or producing a less than acceptable standard of English or, worse still, a string of words to which he himself attaches no real meaning.

After a passage has been thoroughly understood by the procedures indicated earlier, students can be asked, as a special assignment, to prepare a good English version of a passage. This is primarily an exercise in writing English, but it also serves to sharpen sensitivity to the exact meaning of the Latin. Its use is at least occasionally justifiable, sparingly on Level Three, more on the advanced Levels.

The Advanced Phase

Level Four

At this Level students should be able to undertake the reading of the works of Latin authors, exactly as men of distinction and literary skill produced them. The aim is to gain an appreciation of the life, thought, aesthetic achievement, and ideas and ideals of the Romans as well as a knowledge of their contribution to Western civilization.

Many teachers prefer to have students read chiefly prose at Level Four and poetry at Level Five, so that literary criticism may be developed more fully. Some prefer the opposite. The traditional organization has been a course in an author, Cicero at this Level, Vergil at the next. Teachers will find, however, that students are frequently more interested in reading on various topics and in dealing with related ideas, reading the evidence on particularly interesting events, or on social, political, and human problems of a critical era in history, rather than in studying the work of an individual author. Since Cicero wrote in many *genres* and was in so many ways a "mirror of his times," it is not difficult to organize some of the materials previously used into a more meaningful program of reading, adding other materials as they prove useful. Whatever focus of interest is chosen, it provides also the basis for deeper and more extensive collateral reading on the various topics.

The organization of reading material at this Level should follow the interests of class and teacher and the abilities of the class. Each teacher or school system should formulate its own detailed course of study, ideally not identical from year to year. The small readers which give selections or a single oration, or a single "book" of a work, help greatly in lending flexibility to the course (See *Latin Readers: An Annotated Bibliography).* Some teachers may prefer to follow a chronological historical outline, taking up the problems of the first century B.C. in detail as items of critical importance and interest for us today with our problems in making a democracy work. Some may prefer a topical outline taking up such areas as home life, love of country, social life, religion, ideas on death, superstitions, amusements, the young Roman, city life, country life, battles, generalship, Roman achievement, slavery, old age, friendship, science, the law courts, and early Christianity.

One might develop a course based on the problems of Roman democracy. It is possible to begin with both background reading (library), including some Plutarch biography (Gracchi, Marius, Sulla), and to use a few well selected readings from Cicero's letters and earlier speeches. Information on the training of men for leadership can be found in selections from the Orator, etc. The great issues and problems of the day are aired in letters and speeches of Cicero, the works of Sallust, Nepos, Roman biographies and, in Caesar, particularly, the Civil War. The Catilinarian conspiracy can be studied as an incident symptomatic of the disorder and unrest of the times, using Sallust and selections from all four of the Catilinarian speeches.

For the period of the 50's and the emergence of Octavian and Antony, there are letters, the Philippics, and a variety of other sources. Such collateral reading as F. R. Cowell's *Cicero and the Roman Republic,* L. R. Taylor's *Party Politics in the Age of Caesar,* as well as a long list of good books on Cicero and Caesar, are valuable adjuncts. For the reaction against turmoil and the escape into literature, science, and philosophy, there is the possibility of reading not only selections from Cicero's philosophical works, but also of dipping briefly into Lucretius and Catullus. Then there is the whole question of the influence of Greece, the pattern of education (the Archias), etc. The riches are many. The thoughtful teacher will be well repaid to make a valid, coherent set of selections.

Oral Skills

Oral skills should be maintained in the interest of developing appreciation of what the sound and arrangement of words contribute to the artistry of the Latin author. Students whose oral skills have been active all along should be able, with some lab practice, to read literary prose, including oratory, and simple poetry with some degree of skill. Oral comprehension should be keen enough to contribute at all times to an understanding of what is read, to make rapid oral questions and answers in Latin easy, and to allow students to understand one another in fairly simple sentences used to summarize reading and to illustrate structure review.

Homework

The emphasis should be on increasing independence on the part of the student in the language portion of his work. Interest may center on content and discussion involving insights developed through the reading of first hand sources.

However, accuracy and sharp awareness of structure must always be maintained as an appreciation of style, figurative effects and concepts grows. It is still important for the teacher to assist students with unfamiliar features of the language that appear, with the variation found in changing from one author or one type of literature to another, and with the preparation for unusual difficulties in either the structure or ideas to be encountered in the material assigned for home reading.

Class reading at sight should help to improve reading techniques as well as allow for more extensive reading. Translation, consisting of smoother, polished English should be written only occasionally. The combination of discussion of the reading lesson, including Latin questions and answers, new reading, the relating of background material, and the review and analysis of structure and vocabulary should provide an interesting and varied but integrated program.

Level Five

At Level Five, students should be able to read poetry or other difficult Latin in a comprehending manner. Many teachers will choose to make this a course primarily in the Aeneid of Vergil, reading at least four or five of the first six books and considerably more with high ability groups. The course may be broadened by inclusion of parts of the last six books, some selections from other Augustan writers like Horace (Roman Odes), Ovid and Livy (early part of Book I), or by introductory material in prose and verse on the transition to the Augustan Age or by later imitative epic or other Silver Age material. (For suggestions on analysis in depth and preparation for the Vergil Advanced Placement exam, see the CEEB Advanced Placement Bulletin.)

There is still need of instruction in reading techniques. The special features of epic and other types of Latin poetry, verse form and rhythms, metaphorical language and other figurative uses need careful consideration. All of these form a vital part of effective Latin verse, and the student must not overlook them.

Students should develop, with the aid of teacher and tapes, the ability to read poetry aloud well. Reading comprehension should develop to the point where class reading at sight is a frequent possibility. The student at this Level, however, still needs review of forms and structure, as well as instruction in poetic use of cases, etc. Systematic attention to the acquisition of the varied and colorful vocabulary of poetry is necessary to the improvement of reading speed and skill. An understanding of the shades of meaning of synonyms gives valuable insight. Reading pace can be varied for different types of work. The old skills in question-answering and Latin-summarizing should still be exercised.

Students should have some appreciation of translators and translations. They should read in translation some parts of the Aeneid not studied in Latin, learning to evaluate good and bad translations. By this and occasional efforts at polished translations of their own, they soon learn to appreciate the literary ability that enters into translating poetry.

At this Level, students are often curious about the relationship of Latin and Greek and the history of the Latin language. They may desire more detail on the influence of Latin on English. These topics lead to an interest in linguistics. Other students develop a real interest in archaeology through background reading on Troy or early Rome. Still others are fascinated by the use of myth as a medium of conveying ideas in literature and art in both the ancient and the modern world. The exploration of one or more of these areas in depth is most rewarding, but the Latin reading is still paramount.

Level Six

Among schools which offer Latin in grades 7 or 8, or where some streamlining of the program is possible for gifted students, some will wish to participate in the "Fifth Year" Advanced Placement program or simply in an advanced program based on their pupils' and their teachers' interests. The College Entrance A. P. Program for Latin V is set out in its Bulletin. Many students enjoy one semester of Horace and Catullus and another of comedy. There are also options in prose reading.

VII

Pattern Drills

Pattern drills can be used in the classroom and in the language laboratory. Drills conducted in class, in person, have their own particular advantages while those reproduced using a tape recorder or a separate language laboratory set-up also offer teacher and student certain advantages. In general, pattern drills conducted using a tape recorder or language lab assist the student in at least three ways.

- The tape recorder is a tireless taskmaster. It will drill the student for as long a period of time as he wishes or needs, and the models and responses provided do not vary from one presentation to the next.
- The electronic classroom and language laboratory, providing individual student positions equipped with headphones, help eliminate outside distractions and noise.
- The language laboratory provides the student not only with the opportunity to listen but also to respond to drills as an individual since the instructor is the sole person who will listen and make corrections. This isolation from fellow students tends to lessen a student's inhibitions to some extent and helps reduce personal tension.

Pattern drills conducted in person in the classroom offer the student the following advantages:

- In the classroom the teacher can conduct drills with the entire class participating, or he can engage only a part of the class, as the front, back or particular rows, in choral or concert drill. If the instructor wishes, he can change from choral drill to individual drill.
- The teacher and the student have a great deal of personal contact in classroom pattern drill. Eye contact between student and teacher enhances the vitality of the exercise in the classroom.
- In conducting classroom pattern drills the teacher can model the particular utterances, employing the appropriate gestures and facial expressions to make the pattern more meaningful and lifelike for the students.

General Suggestions for Conducting Pattern Drills

These suggestions apply to drills in the classroom as well as in the laboratory, but not all of them are equally appropriate for both. At the outset, the teacher should make it clear to his students that the purpose of drill in either the class or the laboratory is to lead the student to automatic control of the patterns.

Directions

Directions for all pattern drills should be made as clear as possible. In the beginning, directions should be made in English. It is also suggested that the teacher provide, at the beginning of the drill, an example of the pattern he would like to practice with the class. The drill may be initiated with the same example item as the first pattern in the drill. See examples in the recording script later in this chapter.

Teachers may prefer to begin with choral drill (concert drill) and do individual drill responses later. Other teachers feel that it is advisable to start the drill with a student who is likely to answer correctly. A correct response from one student gives those students who are uncertain of the pattern an additional correct model after the teacher's example. As responses become more and more automatic, the teacher may want to alternate his drilling with individual drill and variations of choral drill.

There are two basic distinctions in drills for the classroom and the laboratory. On one hand, teaching drills (non-critical drills), which precede testing drills, do not mix different structures or require more than one change at a time. Testing drills (critical drills), on the other hand, are used after sufficient practice with the teaching drills. Testing may mix different forms. For example, a teaching drill on object pronouns would give practice on the words *it, him, her, us, you, them,* and *me* separately. The testing drill would, however, mix all the object pronouns in the exercise.

Some teachers like to check for comprehension during the course of the drill. No drill can be successful if the student does not know what he is saying. Certainly no words or phrases unknown to the students should be used in a drill. Teachers can assure understanding of the patterns by dramatizing them, using facial expressions and gestures. Pictures and props can also help students grasp the meaning of patterns.

Drills must be conducted with a great deal of verve. Teachers should attempt to commit the drills to memory. However, the teacher may want to write drills on small cards for use when some self-prompting may be needed.

Long pauses in a practice drill should be avoided. In the beginning stages of a drill, if a student happens to falter, the teacher can prompt the student by whispering part of the pattern to him. However, the teacher should never wait very long for a response. Drills should be conducted at a brisk pace. If the teacher does not think it wise to prompt his students, he can decide to call on another student and return later to the student who had hesitated earlier in the drill.

The teacher should initiate the drill by repeating the model a sufficient number of times. However, the teacher should guard against overdoing this, lest the student's ability to listen or his attentiveness be dulled.

Drills should be conducted in a clear voice, with proper stress, pitch, and juncture. Pattern drills should not be conducted in a strident tone.

Pattern drills should not be composed of utterances that are too long or too complicated to be repeated by the students. Whereas longer and more complex drills may be used in upper Level courses, even then care must be taken not to present utterances which may be too long for even a native speaker to remember.

Generally drills should not be conducted for more than fifteen to twenty minutes.

The students' eyes often provide a signal to the teacher which indicates incomprehension, boredom, or fatigue. Teachers skilled in conducting drills are adept at sensing when to change the type of drill and when to begin a completely different activity.

Some teachers will prefer to use commercial drills prepared by textbook publishers. Other teachers may want to prepare their own drill materials. Extreme caution must be taken by those who are writing original drills. There is always the danger that those who are beginning to work with pattern drills may forget the basic difference between testing drills and teaching drills. Moreover, patterns might thus be created that would be rejected by native speakers of the language as ungrammatical, awkward or ridiculous.

Teachers should develop a system of hand signals for use with drills so the class will know when a response is called for and whether the teacher wants choral drill, row drill or individual drill.

Drill presentations should be varied as much as possible. Both choral drill and individual drill should be employed. In addition, the teacher should attempt to vary the *kinds* of drills, selecting drills from several basic drill typologies as: substitution, transformation, English cue, response, expansion, repetition, rotation.

Types of Drill Activity

From among many types of drills, the following are selected for elaboration. This presentation is not designed to be exhaustive in the survey of numerous drills and the variety of names and sub-types that can be found in the literature of the teaching of classical and modern languages. If more detailed information is needed about the variations of drills and the terminology used in their description, it is suggested that Appendix B be examined.

For the drills to be most meaningful to each teacher using this bulletin, they should be presented in the foreign language. However, this would require rendering each drill in nine different languages. The resultant long description, most of which would be meaningless to any individual teacher, would be tedious. Therefore, each drill, with the exception of the English cue drill, is given in English only.

Please concentrate on the form of the drills presented on the record, noting such important distinctions as teaching versus testing drills. Although you may not be called upon to write pattern drills, you certainly will need to judge the pedagogical soundness of material presented to you and to determine when it is appropriate to use certain drills in your teaching.

(Refer to the record in the pocket inside the back cover.)

Script for record to illustrate pattern drills

This recording illustrates the different types of pattern drills discussed in the curriculum bulletin of the Connecticut State Department of Education entitled "Foreign Languages: Grades K-12." A script for this record is included in Chapter VII of the bulletin. The first type of drill to be considered is the repetition drill, including expansion and rotation. While these three drills are of different types, they are very closely related, differing mainly in complexity.

The simple repetition drill requires that the student repeat what he hears the teacher say. It serves to present a structural pattern and to provide practice of the pattern on a very elementary level. Because it is on such a simple plane, the repetition drill will probably hold the interest of most students for a very short time only.

Here is an example.

(Teacher) — Please repeat after me.
I like to drive a car.
(Students) — I like to drive a car.
(Teacher) — I like to drive a car.
(Students) — I like to drive a car.
(Teacher) — I like to drive a car.
(Students) — I like to drive a car.

Signs of boredom or lack of attention on the part of the students will signal a change to another drill to continue practice of the same pattern. If the point of this exercise is to teach and practice the use of the infinitive form after *I like,* the following expansion drill might be used.

(Teacher) — Add each phrase I say to the previous statement.
Repeat — I like to drive a car . . .
(Students) — I like to drive a car . . .
(Teacher) — to fly an airplane . . .
(Students) — I like to drive a car, to fly an airplane . . .
(Teacher) — and to sail a boat.
(Students) — I like to drive a car, to fly an airplane and to sail a boat.
(Teacher) — but I don't like . . .
(Students) — I like to drive a car, to fly an airplane and to sail a boat,
but I don't like . . .
(Teacher) — to walk.
(Students) — I like to drive a car, to fly an airplane and to sail a boat,
but I don't like to walk.

A rotation drill divides a sentence into several segments. The segment repeated by the instructor cues the repetition of the whole sentence by the students. The parts repeated by the teacher serve to model several times the structural or phonological points which may be difficult for the student.

(Teacher) — Please repeat after me.
I want to watch the program that he would like to see.
(Students) — I want to watch the program that he would like to see.
(Teacher) — Now, each time that I repeat a portion of the sentence,
you will repeat the whole statement.
I want to watch . . .
(Students) — I want to watch the program that he would like to see.
(Teacher) — . . . would like to see.
(Students) — I want to watch the program that he would like to see.
(Teacher) — . . . to watch . . .
(Students) — I want to watch the program that he would like to see.
(Teacher) — . . . to see.
(Students) — I want to watch the program that he would like to see.

All of the previously presented drills were teaching drills. All of the necessary information was presented to the student during the drill. The drills did not demand of the student any previous knowledge of structure. The substitution drill can fulfill the same purpose while relieving the monotony of simple repetition. Here is a substitution drill of the teaching or non-critical type.

(Teacher) — Please repeat the sentence, substituting in the model the
cue word which I give.

Where does Mary study?
(Students) — Where does Mary study?
(Teacher) — John
(Students) — Where does John study?

(Teacher) — Susan
(Students) — Where does Susan study?
(Teacher) — Harry
(Students) — Where does Harry study?
(Teacher) — work
(Students) — Where does Harry work?
(Teacher) — eat
(Students) — Where does Harry eat?
(Teacher) — read
(Students) — Where does Harry read?

Here is another sample of a teaching, substitution drill.

(Teacher) — Please repeat after me.
We are anxious to buy a color TV.
(Students) — We are anxious to buy a color TV.
(Teacher) — Now substitute each cue I give in that model.
We are anxious to buy a color TV.
(Students) — We are anxious to buy a color TV.
(Teacher) — They are
(Students) — They are anxious to buy a color TV.
(Teacher) — You are
(Students) — You are anxious to buy a color TV.
(Teacher) — I am
(Students) — I am anxious to buy a color TV.
(Teacher) — He is
(Students) — He is anxious to buy a color TV.
(Teacher) — She is
(Students) — She is anxious to buy a color TV.
(Teacher) — Jane is
(Students) — Jane is anxious to buy a color TV.

Now, this same drill can be made critical, that is to test the students' knowledge of the forms of the verb "to be," by limiting the amount of information given in the cue. Done in the following manner, the drill requires that the student already know these forms. It is, of course, inappropriate to try to use this drill to teach the forms.

(Teacher) — Repeat the model sentence after me and then substitute each succeeding cue in the sentence, making any needed changes.

We are anxious to buy a color TV.
(Students) — We are anxious to buy a color TV.
(Teacher) — I
(Students) — I am anxious to buy a color TV.
(Teacher) — You
(Students) — You are anxious to buy a color TV.
(Teacher) — He
(Students) — He is anxious to buy a color TV.
(Teacher) — Jane
(Students) — Jane is anxious to buy a color TV.
(Teacher) — They
(Students) — They are anxious to buy a color TV.
(Teacher) — She
(Students) — She is anxious to buy a color TV.

A transformation drill tests a student's knowledge of a pattern. However, it also provides him with a method of practicing the pattern further and, perhaps, of gaining a deeper insight into the structure of the pattern. A transformation drill is always critical.

(Teacher) — Change the statement I make to a question.
Follow the model.
Model—The girl is here. Is the girl here?
The girl is here.
(Students) — Is the girl here?
(Teacher) — The student is coming.
(Students) — Is the student coming?
(Teacher) — The teachers are ready.
(Students) — Are the teachers ready?
(Teacher) — The train has left.
(Students) — Has the train left?
(Teacher) — The professor can wait.
(Students) — Can the professor wait?
(Teacher) — The teacher can come.
(Students) — Can the teacher come?

Here is another transformation drill.

(Teacher) — Change each statement to a negative according to this model:
(Teacher) — The man is asleep. The man is not asleep.
The man is asleep.
(Students) — The man is not asleep.
(Teacher) — The train has left.
(Students) — The train has not left.
(Teacher) — The teachers are ready.
(Students) — The teachers are not ready.
(Teacher) — The professor can wait.
(Students) — The professor cannot wait.
(Teacher) — The ladder would fall.
(Students) — The ladder would not fall.
(Teacher) — It will rain.
(Students) — It will not rain.
(Teacher) — She may come tonight.
(Students) — She may not come tonight.

The fourth major category of pattern drills considered here is the response drill. Like the others being treated, there are many possibilities, only a few of which are illustrated on this record. A question-answer, controlled-response drill is very similar to some kinds of transformation drills. Let's use the last transformation drill example given to show how a controlled-response drill can elicit the same pattern from the learner.

(Teacher) — Respond negatively to the question which I ask. For example, Is the man asleep?
You would answer, No, the man is not asleep.
Is the man asleep?
(Students) — No, the man is not asleep.
(Teacher) — Has the train left?
(Students) — No, the train has not left.
(Teacher) — Are the teachers ready?
(Students) — No, the teachers are not ready.
(Teacher) — Can the professor wait?
(Students) — No, the professor cannot wait.
(Teacher) — Would the ladder fall?
(Students) — No, the ladder would not fall.
(Teacher) — Will it rain?
(Students) — No, it will not rain.
(Teacher) — May she come tonight?
(Students) — No, she may not come tonight.

The free response type of activity in a question-answer situation has been the stock in trade of teachers since Socrates. When used for foreign language skill development, the free response drill may give students an opportunity to employ a standard pattern expected by the teacher. But it may also give the student who has mastered more than the "canned" response a chance to improvise. The point is that the response show that the student knows how to use the pattern correctly, both as to structure and meaning. For this reason, it seems most appropriate to use individual student participation as the basis for free response. Note that the pace must be fast so that the rest of the class does not feel left out while individuals respond.

(Teacher) — Answer the question which I ask.
— What time do you leave for school?
(Student) — I leave at 7:30.
(Teacher) — Do you go out Friday night?
(Student) — No, I don't go out Friday night.
(Teacher) — Do you go out Friday night?
(Student) — If I have enough money.
(Teacher) — Does your father get up early or late?
(Student) — He gets up late.
(Teacher) — Does your father get up early or late?
(Student) — He gets up earlier than I do.
(Teacher) — What time do you eat breakfast?
(Student) — I eat breakfast at 6:45.
(Teacher) — Is this book yours?
(Student) — Yes, it's mine.
(Teacher) — Does your father give you a lot of money or a little bit?
(Student) — He gives me a little bit.

The degree of freedom which the teacher will permit the students will vary with the number of patterns which they have mastered. The situations upon which questions are based will be determined also by the vocabulary which students have mastered. Freedom of choice of response should not be granted until students have command of a sufficient variety of patterns. Questions must be carefully chosen so that the students have appropriate vocabulary items under control to give correct responses. It is always important to reduce the possibility of the student's making an error.

All response activity does not have to be of the question-answer type. The cue might be a statement by the teacher followed by a rejoinder by the student. The teacher may limit the range of rejoinders possible or give free rein to the students if they are prepared.

(Teacher) — Make an appropriate statement to follow the one which I make.
What a beautiful day!
(Student) — Yes, it's a beautiful day.
(Teacher) — Carl is sick.
(Student) — That's too bad.
(Teacher) — The sky's awfully dark.
(Student) — It's going to rain.
(Teacher) — These books are a mess.
(Student) — They fell in the mud.
(Teacher) — Some Romans were quite prosperous.
(Student) — But many were no better than slaves.

Of course responses may be other than oral. A student may react with a gesture, facial expression, or a series of coordinated actions. These cannot be well illustrated on this record, but you can imagine many such reactions.

The last pattern drill type to be covered here is the English cue drill. It is, perhaps, the most critical exercise of all in its possible harm to the development of good skill in the foreign language if used poorly. Premature use of the English cue drill will not only cause the student to make errors in structure and phonology, but it will encourage him to resort to English, his native tongue, in attempting to do the exercise. It may reinforce what seems to be the natural tendency, at first, to view the foreign language through the biased lenses of the native language, to translate thoughts in English to the target language, to make that one-to-one correspondence from English to the foreign language which can only hinder most students' learning.

Let's take a Latin drill as an example of the English cue. Remember that this is a sort of culminating activity. The vocabulary and structure are already known by the student. The English cue serves only as another means of providing opportunity for practice of the patterns and also, in some cases, of clarifying meanings and helping the student to generalize.

(Teacher) — Repeat the Latin sentence after me, then give the correct Latin for each English cue given.
Librum porto.
(Students) — Librum porto.
(Teacher) — I am carrying a book.
(Students) — Librum porto.
(Teacher) — You are carrying a book.
(Students) — Librum portas.
(Teacher) — I carry a book; you carry a sword.
(Students) — Ego librum porto; tue gladium portas.
(Teacher) — We carry our books.
(Students) — Libros portamus.
(Teacher) — You all carry your books.
(Students) — Libros portatis.
(Teacher) — We carry our books; you all carry swords.
(Students) — Nos libros portamus; vos gladios portatis.
(Teacher) — A wise man carries a book.
(Students) — Sapiens librum portat.
(Teacher) — Soldiers carry swords.
(Students) — Milites gladios portant.

Obviously, the same form can be followed in an English cue drill for a modern foreign language. Care must be taken not to change so much in vocabulary and in pattern as to force the student to resort to analysis, dissection and translation, word for word, from English into the target language.

Since the pattern drill is an activity for practice, there is a constant, critical need to be sure that an exercise being used does not require something of the student which he does not have the skill to do yet. Repetition drills are always safe in this respect, at least as far as structure is concerned. Be careful to distinguish between teaching and testing drills when dealing with those of the substitution type. Transformation drills and response drills and English cue drills, although providing practice, are almost always of the testing or critical type. Remember this and be sure students have mastered the material necessary to do these drills successfully.

VIII

Evaluation, Scores, and Grades

Evaluation is, in essence, comparison. One thing is preferred to another because of differences observed between them or because of closer conformity to a standard with which both are compared. If it is a question of sugar in one's coffee, there is no external standard, only personal preference. We then call the judgment subjective.

Many evaluations in language performance are strictly objective. Certain sounds convey specific meanings and not others; a 'boat' is not a 'boot'. A word is spelled with certain letters and others will not do. A change in the order of words often means a change in meaning. There are many patterns of sentence structure to which the user is obliged to conform.

When such matters are presented as language problems, evaluation is relatively easy. Rights and wrongs are quickly determined through reference to accepted standards. But when language appears in units larger than the sentence, new elements come into play. We look now not only for accuracy of detail but also for the larger dimensions of attainment of purpose, effectiveness of presentation, and relationships of parts to the whole. We ask not only what is technically acceptable but also what is appropriate and customary. At a further point we ask what is esthetically satisfying.

In this latter area personal judgments are in general not difficult to make, but consistency in individual judgment and, above all, agreement with subjective judgments made by others, are often impossible to attain. Innumerable studies show that not only is it hard for teachers to agree with each other when all the members of a group evaluate the same composition, but also that the individual teacher often has difficulty agreeing with himself when he compares the score given on a Monday morning with the one he gives to the same composition on a Wednesday afternoon.

A language teacher may confidently hope for a high degree of accuracy in a large area of the evaluations he makes. He should also remember that he is often required to make judgments that are elusive and difficult.

Scores and Grades

We may make a technical distinction between scores and grades by using the former when we evaluate specific attempts at language behavior and note the points gained or lost, sometimes with gradations for nearly right, half right, or not quite wrong. Grades, however, although they are based on scores, take into account a number of other important factors. One is the performance of the group as a whole. An individual score takes on a new coloring when we compare it with the scores attained by an entire class or several classes. Fourteen right out of twenty may not look like a very good score until we discover that nobody else in a group of thirty-five did any better.

Grades also take into account a student's growth in knowledge. We often compare a student's performance at one point in time with his performance at an earlier date. Grades also take into account not only separate areas of language activity but also the complex pattern of all the skills and the uses to which they are put. To a certain extent, also, grades take account of what a student brings to a given course as well as the degree to which his capacity as a student is being realized.

It can readily be seen that the giving of scores and the giving of grades are operations that differ radically in their nature. A truly appropriate grade can seldom be arrived at by the mere manipulation of many scores. In evaluating language performance, scoring demands expert knowledge of the responses that are sought. The giving of grades requires not only this but also a broad understanding of what is to be accomplished in a given course, of the relationship between an individual student's rate of advance and that of his peers, and a judgment on the learner's success in availing himself of the intellectual potential that he possesses.

Although many students have about the same degree of success in gaining control of all four skills, many others are noticeably better when language is spoken than when it is written. With still other students, it is just the reverse. For these reasons it is often advisable to separate these two types of scores, so that the learner may know where his strengths and weaknesses are. In arriving at a final grade for a course, many teachers find it useful to put together scores from several sources, weighing these while taking into account the additional factors mentioned earlier.

There are many kinds of tests which teachers may use to attain a high degree of accuracy. Not all tests are constructed for the purpose of giving scores and assigning grades. The types of standardized tests available are discussed as follows:

Achievement. Achievement tests are constructed to assess the degree to which the student has mastered the material which has been presented to him. Publishers of text material may also publish standardized achievement tests, together with norms, to accompany their books. Most teacher-made tests are achievement tests. Many major tests, such as the College Entrance Examination Board's "achievements," are, in the strictest sense, misnamed because they do not purport to measure, necessarily, what the student has been taught. A test which attempts to measure the student's performance independently of what he may have encountered in the classroom is a proficiency test.

Proficiency. There are two test publishers which market proficiency tests of all four language skills in several modern foreign languages. These tests measure the degree of mastery of each skill in comparison with other students who have taken the test. Before administering one of these tests to a group of students, the local staff should determine whether the students are likely to have studied long enough to answer a sufficient number of items so that their scores will be reliable. The Modern Language Cooperative Tests (Educational Testing Service) are designed to be used at the end of Phase One, at the earliest (see Chapter III). This may have involved three or more years of study. The publishers of the Pimsleur Proficiency Tests (Harcourt, Brace and World) indicate that their test may be used at the end of Level One.

Aptitude. These tests attempt to provide information to predict the possibility of a student's succeeding in foreign language study. Aptitude tests are suspect among testing experts because even the best of these tests have a rather low validity in individual cases. The best use of this type of test (two major ones are available for modern languages) may be as part of the information, one small factor, which is gathered to help guide students. Another good potential exists in using some of these tests for diagnostic purposes to predict what areas of language study may be likely to cause difficulty for a certain individual.

Diagnostic. It may be most appropriate to think of a diagnostic use of test results rather than to identify a separate category of tests for this area. The aptitude test may be used for diagnosing potential difficulties in language study. Achievement and proficiency tests yield information on students' weak areas if we look at that portion of the results rather than just at the total score achieved. It requires a closer look at individual tests to use them in a diagnostic manner, but the advantage is obvious if the teacher's goal is to try to do a better job in helping the student learn.

Testing the Four Skills

Following are some suggestions for helping test the four skills, a practice which must be followed if valid scores and appropriate grades are to be given. Item types have been gathered from tests that have already been published or that are soon to be published. Teachers should be able to adapt at least some of these to their own classroom tests.

Listening Comprehension.

True-False Statements. The speaker or tape presents a number of statements, each statement being presented twice. The student indicates in some prearranged manner whether the statement is true or false.

Action-Response or Body Motion. The student carries out the commands given by the speaker.

Multiple Choice. Type "a" below involves some ability to read. In types "b" and "c", the multiple choice answers may be presented orally or may be written on the student's test.

a. Sound Discrimination. The student's test contains a set of four statements with slightly different meanings but with similarities in sound. The speaker or tape repeats one of the four statements twice. The student checks the statement read.

Speaker: I hate cake. (Twice)

Choices: A. I bake cake.
B. I hate cake.
C. I ate at eight.
D. I ate cake.

b. Recognition of Correct Answer to Question Presented Orally. The speaker or tape asks a question. The student indicates which one of the four responses is the correct one.

Speaker: What do you answer when you are asked "How are you?"

Choices: A. You're welcome.
B. Nine o'clock.
C. Fine, thanks.
D. At home.

c. Recognition of Correct Completion of Incomplete Statement. The speaker or tape presents an incomplete sentence. The student chooses the word or phrase which best completes it.

Speaker: I eat because..(Twice)

Choices: A. I am tired
B. I am hungry
C. I am doing my homework
D. I like television.

d. Recognition of Multiple Choice Answers Based on Passage Presented Orally. The speaker or tape presents a conversation or passage twice. Each question is presented orally twice. The student selects the proper answer for each question from the four choices given.

Speaker: Mrs. Jones stopped in front of her apartment door. She was discouraged. She had lost her keys. Her husband was in the hospital, very ill. Her daughter, whom she had met on the street, had told her that she had flunked her history exam.

1. Where was Mrs. Jones?
A. On the street
B. In the hospital
C. In front of her apartment door
D. In school

Speaking Ability. A test for speaking ability should be short so that if it is recorded it will be possible for the teacher to listen to all the answers and score them. If the test is given to one student at a time, it will be possible for the teacher to get to each student. The latter procedure may make it necessary to make a different test for each student or to see each student privately and in such a manner that there will be no communication between a student who has finished and those waiting to be tested. Scoring might be based on how soon the student responds, how good his pronunciation and intonation are, and how accurate his answer is. Most of the item types listed below involve listening comprehension as well.

Mimic or Echo. The student repeats what he hears.

Oral Reading. The student reads a passage aloud.

Questions. The student may be asked to answer questions about himself or about other topics. He may be asked to answer some questions in the affirmative and some in the negative.

Directed Dialogue. The student is told to ask someone a question, or he may be told to relay a message to another person.

Response to Picture. The student is instructed to respond orally to a picture.

Reading Ability. The following question types have been used for many years to test reading ability.

True-false questions.
Questions on content.
Summaries.
Matching of items.
Completion.
Multiple choice.

Writing Ability. Writing ability should be tested at the subsentence, sentence, and paragraph levels.

Subsentence Level. Sentences are used in which one element, usually a word, is deleted and has to be supplied by the student. Words deleted should be non-content words such as prepositions, pronouns, conjunctions, negatives, auxiliary verbs, basic idioms, articles. Each item should have only one possible answer.

1. He wrote not one sentence, ...two.
2. She ....gone to the movies every night this week.
3. I picked up ....very book he was looking for.

Sentence Level. The following item types are among those that can be used to test writing ability at the sentence level.

a. Dehydrated or Fill-out. A sentence is "dehydrated" (words deleted), and the student must restore it to its original dimension. Words should be used in the order given, and some indication should be given as to the approximate length desired for the completed sentence:

Construct an acceptable sentence of between ten and fifteen words, using the words in the order given.

go concert if buy ticket
(I will go to the concert if I can buy a ticket.)

b. Rewrite. The student is instructed to change a sentence by changing the tense, or subject or number or to make any other change desired.

c. Rejoinder. A rejoinder is written in response to an utterance.
(1) You're late again. (It wasn't my fault this time.)
(2) Finish your homework. (I'm too tired.)

Paragraph Level.

a. Paragraph Writing. The student is instructed to write a paragraph based on the elements given.

Using the items listed below, write a paragraph of about fifty words.

Winter vacation
John and Joe
New skis
Broken arm
Skis intact

b. Rewriting. The student is asked to rewrite a given paragraph changing the time, changing the point of view, etc.

c. Combining Sentences. The student is asked to join isolated sentences into a paragraph. The sentences will be structured so as to imply a certain logical order.

d. Fill-ins. A paragraph is presented containing blanks in place of certain words that have been deleted. An acceptable paragraph is to be reconstructed by filling in the blanks.

A more detailed treatment of the subject of teacher-made tests can be found in "Making Your Own Language Tests" by Nelson Brooks (available from Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey, or the Connecticut State Department of Education, Foreign Language Consultant).

IX

Utilization of Audio-Visual and Mechanical Aids

Audio-visual and mechanical aids hold a definite place in all teaching and will yield good results when used with imagination and planning. However, the teacher must give considerable thought to the preparation and manipulation of such materials and be fully aware of the goals he wishes to reach so that these aids do not become merely time-consuming gadgets.

Audio-Visual Aids

These are tools that help in implementing methods of teaching. Audio-visual aids are never independent teaching devices but are to be used in conjunction with good teaching practices. Pictures, for instance, can illustrate a great deal in the development of a situation and can remind the student of an oral expression which he has associated with these illustrations.

The Chalkboard. The chalkboard can be most effectively used after the students have been introduced to the writing phase. It can be an aid in many ways, such as for sketches, symbols and grammatical structures. The chalkboard can be the most important asset in the classroom, especially if other aids are lacking. Many of the advantages of the chalkboard are being replaced by the overhead projector.

Overhead Projector. Overhead transparencies can be produced from practically any document at a low cost. The acetate roll can be written on easily with a special pencil. Drawings, sketches, symbols and diagrams can be fabricated during class time while the teacher is facing the class. Darkening of the classroom is not necessary. This type of projector lends itself well to introducing the reading and writing phases of the four basic skills. This instrument is easy to manipulate, and it is flexible because of its successive overlays.

Flashcards, Wall Charts, Flannel Board. These teaching aids have been used successfully for years. They are means by which the attention of the entire class is focused on one stimulus. These aids can be used at any time without having to darken rooms, use electrical connections or employ special equipment.

The flannel board is useful, because figures can be cut out of flannel or other material treated with a commercial preparation that will adhere easily to its surface. The teacher can rearrange items quickly to demonstrate dialogue situations, to present vocabulary and to illustrate structures.

Objects, Models, Pictures. These are all effective visual aids and sometimes less costly. A word of caution: Many commercially prepared picture-charts are too detailed and combine the printed word with the visual image. The teacher must be certain that all objects, models and pictures are culturally accurate. A picture cut from an American magazine may present a false impression of the foreign situation.

Opaque Projector. It must be remembered that the opaque projector can be used effectively only in a totally darkened room. This presents problems in many respects. It is hard to hold the attention of students under these conditions. Note-taking is not feasible, and some students may be visually handicapped. It is an excellent instrument, however, for the showing of photographs, postcards, pages from books, small maps, etc.

Filmstrips and Slides. These may be used singly for conversation with the help of the teacher. They may also be coupled with a tape recording or disc. A sound signal on the tape or record allows the teacher to know when to change to a new picture. Some systems have a control that allows a signal to be recorded on a tape which will automatically advance the filmstrip or slide projector to the next frame.

16mm. Motion Picture. This is, in theory, the most exciting visual aid in that it most closely approaches reality. It combines movement, color and sound. One variation of use of this medium for foreign language instruction is to show the film without the sound. This can allow the student to participate orally instead of listening to the narrator or actor. Foreign government agencies frequently provide cultural films free of charge or at a nominal fee. They should be used more widely because of the "real" aspect they bring to the classroom situation.

8 mm. Motion Picture. Because of more reasonable costs and recent technological advances, the 8 mm. film offers the best possibilities for local film production as part of classroom activities. Also, the single-concept film loop may have application for foreign language use, although it has not been exploited at the time of this writing. For example, a limited number of phonemes might be presented on a one-minute loop for practice by the student. Positions of the speech organs can be filmed at the same time as the sound is presented. This would give more help to an individual, studying independently, than just a recorded presentation of the sound.

Television. Regular educational foreign-language television programs may be available in most districts. Listings of programs may be made available long enough in advance to allow administrators and teachers to organize and schedule them for their students. It is recommended that qualified language specialists follow up each television lesson in each classroom that participates. Television, after all, does no more than a textbook as far as skill development is concerned. It presents subject matter. The actual learning takes place in a follow-up, under the guidance of a teacher. Since younger children, especially, are usually better language learners (aurally) than adults, the teacher who is learning the language concurrently with the students will probably be of little help to them.

Tape Recorder, Electronic Classroom, Language Laboratory

With the added emphasis on the audio-lingual skills in modern languages and the focusing of effort on skill development in Latin, the tape recorder has become an important part of every language classroom and an indispensable item in the modern language classroom. A high quality tape recorder is needed for every foreign language classroom throughout Phase One of language study. Less costly tape recorders of lower fidelity may be altogether appropriate for study of native-language material, but they are not acceptable for presenting models for comprehension and imitation by modern language students during the Initial Phase.

Beyond the tape recorder there are two basic types of electronic equipment commonly in use for foreign language instruction today. They are the electronic classroom and the language laboratory. The language laboratory is usually the first one that comes to mind. This is a stationary installation which has booths. It is a separate room to which students are scheduled for electronic presentation of aural activities only. The lab program must be fully integrated with the classroom materials used.

The electronic classroom, on the other hand, has no fixed booths. It serves as a combination of classroom and room for electronic drill. It may help to think of the electronic classroom as an extension of the tape recorder. Little more can be done with the electronic classroom than with the tape recorder. But with the former, the same things can be done much more effectively.

Types of Installations. There are three basic types of electronic installations.

> The listen-only (audio-passive) installation is one in which a student listens to a master source for comprehension only. This has become obsolete as the sole facility for language laboratories and electronic classrooms, but in schools emphasizing independent study it again shows promise for advanced studies in listening comprehension. It is probably most useful in Phases Two and Three.
>
> The listen-respond (audio-active) installation permits the student to hear himself as he responds to a given stimulus through a connection of microphone, amplifier and earphones. This is the minimum facility acceptable when the student is expected to give an oral response.
>
> The listen-respond-record (audio-active-record) installation allows the student to listen to a master source, to hear his own response, and to record both his response and the master source on tape by means of a tape recorder which is designed to do this. The greatest advantage of this equipment is that the student has control of his own program to the degree that he may repeat only the exercises that he finds the most difficult. It approaches individualization of instruction.

Scheduling. Scheduling should be determined both by the frequency and the length of lab periods. There should be no scheduling of tape recorders or electronic classrooms as each appropriate classroom should have one or the other as part of its standard equipment. One advantage of an electronic classroom over a language laboratory is that it is immediately available. If fewer than the needed number of classrooms are fully equipped, and the foreign language teacher must plan his activities to meet the availability of the equipment, the advantage of immediate availability is completely lost. In the latter case, it would probably be preferable to install a language laboratory, where there would be more versatility possible, and to schedule the sharing of its use by several classrooms.

It is generally accepted and supported to some degree by research that lab periods of twenty or twenty-five minutes, at least twice a week, are preferable for secondary schools. (There has been little or no use of language laboratories in elementary schools.) Lab sessions lasting more than thirty minutes are not as effective and tend to weaken the reinforcement process for which they are designed.

Broadcast System or Library System. In many secondary schools there are two kinds of laboratory systems, broadcast and library. The former system may be identified with a listen-respond situation. An entire class or group participates in the lab at one time. The library system demands that each position have access to a tape deck so that the student can work individually. Students go into the lab at times unrelated to their class meetings. This latter system is probably the more efficient, but before planning such a lab the problem of personnel to supervise the lab sessions must be considered. Lab equipment which combines facilities for both systems may be purchased.

Operational Duties. Every measure should be taken so that the operation and administration of the language laboratory will not be an extra burden on teachers. If it is necessary for teachers to supervise extra lab sessions, this work should be considered actual class duty. Teachers should not be expected to perform maintenance or repair work while using the lab. Maintenance and administrative duties which could be performed by a teacher may be planned as part of the class load of a member of the staff, if the work to be done is not so much as to require the employment of a language laboratory director.

Appendix A

Glossary of Terms

Adaptation: Procedure whereby sentences learned or being learned are related to the personal experience of the students, (personalization) or are otherwise meaningfully modified. The teacher asks questions of the students, directs the students to ask questions of each other or to tell something.

See *Directed Dialogue*.

Auditory Discrimination: The ability to distinguish between sounds in one language or between similar sounds in two languages.

Backward Build-up: A technique of teaching a long utterance by building up the utterance from the end by phrases, thereby preserving the sentence intonation contour.

Cue: A signal (word, phrase, etc.) to which the student is to respond.

Choral Response: Repetition of a model by the whole class or a portion of the class. Useful with beginners as a prelude to individual response because they apparently feel less inhibited responding as part of a group, or with more advanced students as a time-saving device.

Critical drill: (see Chapter VII): A testing drill.

Culture: It may mean personal refinement, or the products of artistic endeavor, or the total belief and behavior patterns of a language community. With all due respect for the first two of these, it is the third, *the deep culture,* that merits most of the attention in a language class, for the language is itself one of the most important elements of culture in this sense. What do people think about, what do they value most, how do they esteem each other and the activities in which they engage? It is the reflection of these things in the new language that is of most interest and value to the student.

Direct Method: An approach to foreign-language teaching and learning in which only the target language is used by teacher and students.

Directed Dialogue: A form of oral practice in which the teacher directs students to ask specific questions of or make specific statements to other students or to him.

Electronic Classroom: A regular foreign language classroom with the individual student positions equipped for listen-respond activities. Program sources and monitoring may be provided from a central console. There are no booth divisions.

Expansion Drill: A drill that starts with a sentence, word, or phrase which is to be expanded by the addition of a word, phrase, or clause supplied by the student or given as a cue by the teacher. A round robin procedure may also be followed in which each succeeding student adds something to the statement.

Exposition: A short presentation that sets the framework within which new learning is to be acquired. Learning proceeds much faster if the nature of the problem or situation is first made clear.

Fit: The relationship between a writing system and the sounds of the language it represents. Examples of good fit in English: "sip," "rub," "let"; examples of poor fit: "though," "women," "nation."

FLES: Foreign Language (in) Elementary Schools. Rhymes with "dress."

Frame: 1) In pattern drill, an utterance exemplifying a grammar pattern;

2) in programed instruction, a line or other minimal unit of instruction. See *cue, slot.*

Fundamental Skills: An approach to teaching and learning foreign languages which stresses the four skills of listening comprehension, speaking, reading, and writing. An antidote to the term audio-lingual approach when the latter is interpreted literally as being concerned only with listening and speaking.

Grammar: The analysis of the structure of a language as to forms for individual words, sentences. In the fundamental skills approach, grammar is done by analogy first and then by analysis. Use precedes explanations.

Language Laboratory: A room apart from the usual foreign language classroom where students work on language practice problems to complement their class work. It is equipped with booths for individual student isolation and a central console with several program sources, which may be directed simultaneously to several different student stations. Student positions may be equipped with listen-respond and/or listen-respond-record facilities.

Listening Comprehension: This term is now preferred to aural comprehension, perhaps due to the confusion of the words aural and oral. Listening comprehension is also more precise than the general term "understanding."

Metaphrase: A literal translation from one language into another; a structural analysis of partial sentences.

Morpheme: The smallest meaningful linguistic unit and, together with the phoneme, one of the two basic units of linguistic analysis. Morphemes are made up of phonemes in sequence and comprise both free forms (for example: sofa, big, able, cook) and bound forms (such as the -s of sofas, the -ness of bigness, the un- of unable, and the -s and -ed of cooks and cooked).

Morphology: The analysis of word-forming elements in a language, involving inflection, derivation, and compounding. Cf. morpheme.

Non-critical drill (See Chapter VII): A teaching drill.

Pattern Drill: An exercise in which an utterance is repeated with only one element of its structure changed at one time. The purpose is to make clear what the underlying structure is and how it is changed. For example: "She drives her car, he drives his." "She wants her way, he wants his." "She writes to her parents, he writes to his." Its essential value to the student is that it encourages learning that depends not upon analysis but upon analogy and fosters learning by patterns, which seem to be the lowest common denominator for the unit of learning. (see Chapter VII)

Phoneme: A minimally significant sound unit, carrying no meaning, but distinguishing one morpheme from another as, for example, *pin* from *bin*. The phonemes of a language seldom number more than 50 or so and include not only the vowels and consonants but also features of pitch, stress, and juncture.

Phonology: The system of sound features of a language at a given time, including both phonetics and phonemics.

Programed Instruction: Instruction by small increments in which the student may check his answer immediately. This is a technique employed in certain textbooks or by a teaching machine.

Re-entry: The appearance of vocabulary from one unit to another for reinforcement. The same would apply for structure being repeated.

Referent: A word or term referred to by another.

Rejoinder: A student's reply or reaction to a statement made by a teacher.

Slot: The position that a word or phrase may occupy in a frame or pattern.

Structure: The phonemes and morphemes of a language and their various interrelationships.

Substitution: The replacing of a linguistic form by a substitute in context.

Suprasegmental Phonemes: These involve significant features of pitch, stress, and juncture which accompany segmental phonemes (vowels and consonants in succession) in human communication.

Syntax: The patterns of language, more particularly the order of words and the relation of order changes to meaning. For example, in English we may say "He has closed his door," or "He has his door closed," or "Has he closed his door?" or "Has he his door closed?" These are all common syntactical patterns, each with its special meaning. However, as every five-year-old speaker of English knows, we cannot say "He his door closed has." This syntactical pattern is not permitted in English, though its counterpart is found in other languages.

Target Language: The foreign language being studied.

Teaching Machine: A device in which programed materials may be inserted. The student may proceed at his own rate.

Transformational Grammar: A series of rules that will enable one to derive an unlimited number of sentences of all types from a small number of basic sentences.

Utterance: Any morpheme or sequence of morphemes grammatically independent of other morphemes.

Vocabulary Study: In general, words may be divided into three types for aid in learning. There are the "little" or "empty" words (structural morphemes) that have little meaning in themselves but serve to particularize items in an utterance and to relate them to each other as well as to change and guide the direction of thought. Such words are *this, but,* and *although*. "Content" words (message morphemes) such as *salt, gift, holiday* tell their own story. Then there are clusters of words (idioms) such as a verb that conveys a special concept when used with a given pronoun or preposition *(call it off, go without)*. These last present special difficulties for the learner, for in them vocabulary and structure are intimately combined.

Appendix B

Suggestions for The Teacher's Bookshelf

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Periodicals and Professional Associations

American Association of Teachers of French. *The French Review.* J. Henry Owens, Circulation Manager, Eastern Michigan University, Ypsilanti, Michigan 48197.

American Association of Teachers of German. *The German Quarterly.* Herbert H. J. Peisel, Syracuse University, Syracuse, New York 13210.

American Association of Teachers of Italian. *Italica.* Ernest S. Falbo, Secretary-Treasurer, Gonzaga University, Spokane, Washington 99202.

American Association of Teachers of Slavic and Eastern European Languages. *The Slavic and East European Journal.* Irwin Weil, Secretary-Treasurer, Brandeis University, Waltham, Massachusetts 02154.

American Association of Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese. *Hispania.* Eugene Saviano, Secretary-Treasurer, Wichita State University, Wichita, Kansas 67208.

American Classical League. *The Classical Outlook.* Henry C. Montowey, Business Manager, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio 45056.

American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages. *Foreign Language Annals.* Kenneth W. Mildenberger, Interim Editor. 62 Fifth Avenue, New York 10011.

Connecticut Council of Language Teachers. Kenneth A. Lester, Interim-Executive Secretary, Connecticut State Department of Education, Hartford 06115.

Modern Language Journal. Wallace G. Klein, Business Manager, 13149 Cannes Drive, St. Louis, Missouri 63141.

Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, *TESOL Newsletter.* James E. Alatis, Executive Secretary, Georgetown University, Washington, D.C.

The following associations have Connecticut chapters:

American Association of Teachers of French
American Association of Teachers of German
American Association of Teachers of Slavic and Eastern European Languages
American Association of Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese
Connecticut Council of Language Teachers
Connecticut Section of the Classical Association of New England

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